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edited by HARL R. DOUGLASS, Ph.D.,

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Educational Supervision in Principle and Practice

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Preface

Supervision is a process for stimulating teacher growth to the end that better learning experiences are provided for children. In this volume, supervision is treated as a coordinated process affecting many phases of the educational program. The emphasis is upon the human relations aspect of supervision in carrying out the functions of the school program. These functions include the formulation of clear educational purposes, provisions for a favorable physical and social learning climate and continuous curriculum evaluation and development, and promotion of effective teaching conditions.

Designed for courses in the supervision of instruction, the book will also be of use to persons seeking to improve classroom instruction through skillful supervision of teachers. Each chapter presents a different aspect of supervision, first giving the basic principles from which the theory has been formulated and then expanding upon the implications the theory holds for action.

The four parts of the book are arranged logically in terms of the usual approaches to the study of supervision. Part I presents the nature and development of modern supervision. Part II deals with the supervisor in terms of his personal resources and of his professional relationships in the educational process. The primary functions of supervision in education—diagnostic, evaluative, and improvement—are explained in Part III. The last part describes the supervisory principles and practices involved in the improvement of the curriculum and the teaching process, with emphasis upon the use of instructional materials and the recognition of educational change.

Though pertinent gleanings from research and literature in the field of supervision are acknowledged, the book primarily represents the observations and point of view of the author, which are based on years of experience in the administration and supervision of schools and on study and profitable association with educational leaders and graduate students. It is hoped, therefore, that the theoretical aspects of the book will be sufficiently provocative to stimulate the serious study of the bases of supervision, and that these will have practical application to the work of supervisory personnel.

The direct and indirect contributions of many people have gone into the preparation of this volume. Professor Wendell W. Wright, former Dean of the School of Education, Indiana University, many of the author's professional colleagues, and members of his assisting staff have been helpful in word or deed at various stages of the development of the manuscript. Grateful acknowledgment is also extended to publishers of copyright materials for their permission to quote or adapt passages from their publications. Special appreciation is extended to Professor Harl R. Douglass, University of Colorado, for helpful suggestions concerning the manuscript, and to the author's wife, who kept the coffee "perking" into the late hours.

HANNE J. HICKS

Bloomington, Indiana
February, 1960

Part I

THE NATURE OF
MODERN SUPERVISION

Characteristics of Effective Supervision

Modern supervision is one of the best examples of educational leadership in action. Improved supervisory practices in the schools of our country constitute a constant reminder of what can be accomplished through intelligent and co-operative planning and effort. Although the primary purpose of supervision presumably always has been to improve the teaching-learning process either directly or indirectly, modern developments in education have been accompanied by corresponding changes in our concepts of what constitutes fruitful supervisory procedures. It seems appropriate to indicate at the beginning of this volume just a few of these changes as background for considering a suitable definition of modern supervision.

CONCEPTS OF SUPERVISION

The earliest forms of supervision practiced in American schools were characterized by inspection and subsequent appraisal based on preconceived and almost completely uniform standards. There is little evidence that attention to the detection of faulty procedures of classroom teachers was accompanied by a parallel interest in offering assistance in the improvement of the situation. The matter now appears even more serious as we realize that these supervisory functions were often performed by adminis-

trators, or even laymen, with little or no professional background or training. It evokes little wonder from thoughtful educators, as they survey some of our demonstrated concepts of supervision of an earlier day, that someone has noted that supervision has seldom been "super," nor has it evidenced much "vision."

Undoubtedly, the changes which have occurred in the organization and atmosphere of classrooms themselves have had corresponding influences on our ideas and methods of supervision. The rigid, formal, and repressive climate of many traditional classrooms resulted in strained teacher-pupil relationships similar to the supervisor-teacher relationships which existed in the situation. As teachers increasingly have sought to develop more relaxed and natural working and living relationships with children, they have experienced a growing appreciation of supervisors who strive to maintain and develop wholesome and pleasant conditions under which common professional problems can be attacked co-operatively. It must be admitted that it is very difficult to determine exactly which is cause and which is effect, but it does seem possible to establish a genuine correlation between the nature of the concepts of supervision practiced during any period of our educational history and the nature and outcomes of classroom procedures during the same period.

✓ One of the most noteworthy features of modern supervision is its emphasis on human relationships. Obviously, it is no pure accident that the quality of educational practice almost invariably appears to be best in school systems staffed by happy, secure, and enthusiastic persons who know how to live and work together effectively. In most of these situations much of the credit can be given to constructive supervisory attitudes and activities.

As supervision has developed into an integral part of the total pattern of education, many definitions of it have emerged. Many of these definitions recognize the importance of the scientific approach to successful supervi-

sion; others place considerable emphasis on co-operation and common participation as bases upon which productive supervisory activities largely depend. More recent definitions often include effective group processes as essential elements of supervision. Virtually all who propose definitions assume the primary purpose of supervision to be the improvement of learning through intelligent study, evaluation, and modification of the conditions affecting the learning situation. Stripped of the specific functions mentioned above, and into which any general definition might be suitably divided, the modern concept of supervision might well be expressed as *professional guidance and assistance given when and where it is needed*.

Such a concept of supervision can be applied to all levels and phases of educational operation. As a guiding concept of personnel relationships and procedures it appears to apply equally well to school superintendents, principals, supervisors, consultants, and supervising teachers who guide the experiences of teachers and prospective teachers. Before considering some of the more specific characteristics of supervision, it may be profitable to make some general observations about the supervisory process.

UNDERLYING CONSIDERATIONS IN SUPERVISION

The supervisory process comprises many specific and varied activities and techniques. Yet, undergirding virtually all of the facets of supervision are certain common generalizations which serve as the platform of the supervisor. Some of these are noted below.

Supervision can be justified only in terms of its relationship to the teaching-learning situation. Although it may be true that supervisors sometimes are employed for the direct purpose of relieving the professional burden of overloaded administrators, the justification for the additional staff member must lie in the hope of improving, directly or indirectly, the quality of education realized in the school

system. It is difficult to recall, at times, that supervision has no end in itself. Its benefits emerge only from its positive effects on teaching, and consequently, learning. Thus, the basic criterion for judging the quality of supervision, or for providing for it, is the extent to which it stimulates the educational process in a constructive direction.

The effectiveness of supervision is directly related to the level of human interaction that can be established and maintained. Modern supervision is composed of much more than rating sheets, classroom visits, and the eagerness to preside at teachers' meetings. It is, in fact, based primarily on an attitude of continuous and mutual interaction. If such interaction is based on a spirit of helpfulness and abounds in a field of security, the processes of sharing and pooling become both basic and natural. Such is the spirit of modern supervision as opposed to the attitudes of superiority, omnipotence, and condescension which pervaded much of the activity of supervisors during the earlier history of education.

Modern supervision is successful in proportion to its acceptance by persons other than supervisory personnel. Technical competence on the part of the supervisor will not insure productive supervision. Neither will hard work or persistence guarantee that the supervisory effort will be rewarded with success. Supervision is not a unit of effort or activity of the supervisor; it is more accurately defined as a process which produces desired results. These outcomes are often minimized, if not entirely precluded, by negative attitudes of teachers and staff members with whom the supervisor works. On the other hand, the acceptance of the supervisor as a co-worker by his colleagues is a basic prerequisite to subsequent benefits which may be derived from co-operative activity.

Modern supervision is based on a broadened concept of leadership. The concept of leadership held by a group usually depends on the emotional climate within which

the group must work. If the tone of the situation is largely authoritarian, only a status type of leader will have much opportunity to exercise leadership. Conversely, however, if feelings of security and mutual respect exist, it is relatively easy to encourage a type of leadership which emerges from the group. Modern supervision is based on the assumption that the latter condition is both a goal and an essential facet of the supervisor in assuming his responsibilities.

Modern supervision is planned supervision. Obviously, the supervisory process one observes in a modern school system is much more natural and less formal than that of an earlier day. This is not to be interpreted, however, as suggesting a de-emphasis on planning. With all the numerous day-to-day responsibilities of the modern supervisor, planning becomes quite essential to any effective operation. The chief distinction lies in the emphasis today on planning with people rather than planning about people. In order to carry out the many demands of modern supervision, the supervisor not only must be well organized but also must plan his efforts carefully and wisely.

CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE SUPERVISION

An examination of professional literature and of the policies and practices utilized in the better schools of our country today reveals certain common and rather clear-cut characteristics of acceptable supervision. Some of these are stated below:

Effective supervision is adaptive and flexible. The aims and methods of the supervisor are determined by the conditions inherent in a particular situation and by the nature of the specific problems involved. This does not permit the application of pre-conceived interpretations of the problem nor the use of predetermined professional solutions.

Effective supervision is co-operative. Consideration of a professional problem by all persons involved, is an essential ingredi-

ent of effective supervision. A give-and-take attitude on the part of both supervisor and teachers pays dividends to both.

Effective supervision is scientific. Successful supervisors take a personal interest in their associates with whom they work but they are able, at the same time, to deal with their professional problems in an objective and impersonal way. Good supervisors are aware of the elements of the scientific method and are cognizant of its benefits and limitations when applied to educational situations.

Effective supervision is intelligently conceived. The application of common sense to the day-to-day solution of problems will go a long way toward insuring moderate success for the supervisor. However, completely successful supervision depends upon a substantial fund of knowledge of both modern educational processes and developments and of people and their psychological and emotional attributes.

Effective supervision has a positive motivating effect. This implies that the weaknesses of teachers possibly may be eliminated most effectively by capitalizing on their strengths. Obviously, the first step in improvement is wanting to improve. Good supervision causes people to develop the desire to improve and proceeds from that point.

Effective supervision is both analytical and integrative. While the competent supervisor is fully aware of the significance of each element in a teaching-learning situation, he views and appraises it in relation to the whole school program or educational pattern. Such a supervisor understands the proportionate value of various elements in the situation and acts accordingly.

Effective supervision is both projective and reflective. It profits from the experiences of the past, considers the expediencies of the present, and seeks to develop sound approaches to the future.

From the above stated characteristics, which, of course, are not intended to be entirely exhaustive, it may be concluded that modern supervision is both a technical and a social process designed to promote the intelligent, co-operative utilization of educational resources, both human and material, in the critical analysis, evaluation, and improvement of the conditions which affect the quality of the learning.

FACTORS INFLUENCING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF SUPERVISION

No set pattern of activities or techniques exists which will guarantee that the efforts of a supervisor will render the maximum potential results of the type that might be desired. While there is a considerable amount of accumulated evidence of the immediate and potential value of modern supervisory techniques as compared with those of earlier times, the factors which comprise supervision are so numerous and complex and the conditions which surround it are so intangible that it is impossible to predict with complete accuracy that certain methods will always produce given results. It is, therefore, important to recognize that many factors over and beyond those having to do with the technical skill involved have a very real and significant bearing on the effectiveness with which supervisory activities are executed and on the results that come from these activities. In the final analysis, the attitudes and work of each administrator and teacher in a school have an indirect, if not direct, influence upon the success of a supervisor or supervising teacher as they guide and assist others. This may be clarified by indicating briefly a few of the influencing factors mentioned above.

Whether or not it is recognized by all administrators and teachers, every school is organized, administered, and operated according to a philosophy of education. This is the first factor which has an influence upon the effectiveness of supervision. The philosophy underlying the program of a school is revealed in many ways. The nature and source of a school's purposes, the manner in which the members of the staff and their resources are utilized, the atmosphere and educational tone which prevails, the personnel policies of the administration, the nature and scope of the learning experiences provided, and the educational interaction between school and community—all are clues to the philosophy of education existing in a school system.

Obviously, a school in which personnel policies respect

the rights of individuals and give members of the staff a feeling of justice and security is very fertile ground for wholesome supervisory relationships. This is particularly true of a situation in which individual contributions are valued and recognized and in which members of the staff feel free to raise questions and pose problems regarding the school program without the fear of condemnation or recrimination.

A second factor related to the effectiveness of supervision is the nature of the physical conditions comprising and surrounding the school situation. Bright, attractive, and well-ventilated classrooms in which a reasonable number of children have sufficient space to engage in varied learning experiences seem to have a strong and positive motivating effect on children and teachers alike. Conversely, dull and uninteresting classrooms and meager learning materials constitute limitations which even the most skillful and enthusiastic supervisor will find difficult, if not impossible, to surmount.

ASPECTS OF THE SUPERVISORY FUNCTION

Much of the responsibility and, for that matter, the subsequent outcomes of supervision are evolved from the critical, expert analysis of the teaching-learning process and the opportunities for learning which are provided in the school and community environment.

Broadly speaking, then, the functions of a supervisor include all those activities which are related to the evaluation and improvement of teaching and learning. A recognition of this responsibility carries with it the obligation of a supervisor to become an active student of educational developments and modern educational practice.

APPRAISING PURPOSES OF THE SCHOOL

Evaluation as a supervisory process implies the necessity for appraising existing conditions and procedures in the light of the best available knowledge in the field of educa-

tion. In order to meet the demands of this responsibility, the supervisor must be acquainted with educational research and literature and be willing to employ an experimental attitude in his own work. He needs to know what educational leaders believe to be suitable purposes for education in American democracy. Numerous statements of educational purposes and objectives have appeared in recent years. Many such statements are modifications of the purposes formulated by the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association in 1938: the objectives of self-realization, of human relationships, of economic efficiency, and of civic responsibility.

While it is proper and desirable that each school formulate its own aims, suited to its particular conditions and needs, it is also wise for local educators to consider carefully the relationship of their expressed and implied purposes to the generally accepted goals of education in America. Certainly, any worthy instructional program will seek to promote the personal development of the learner *and to assist him in developing the skills for successful living and for further learning.* But outstanding schools of today are not content to stop at that point. They are attempting to provide a learning environment that will encourage and develop social competence, a sense of personal responsibility and ethics, a variety of wholesome interests, a continuing and active intellectual curiosity, group concern, and many other attributes of a well-rounded citizen.

Obviously, the supervisor is in a key position to influence constructively the definition, formulation, implementation, and interpretation of the purposes of his school. This is not meant to imply that he should impose his own ideas on the situation in an authoritarian manner, however good those ideas might be. Rather, he should be in a position to bring the best available knowledge to the attention of the participating individuals so that *the wisest possible decisions* can be made with regard to setting up the goals for the instructional program of the school.

The teacher, and particularly the beginning teacher, can

profit especially from the skillful interpretation of educational purposes by the supervisor. The competent supervisor can do much at this point to alleviate the confusion that sometimes exists in the minds of beginning teachers regarding assumed or imaginary conflicts between educational theory and practice, and to demonstrate how they can be effectively merged into a clear and meaningful pattern.

EVALUATING LEARNING EXPERIENCES

No matter how exemplary and valid a statement of objectives may be, it remains virtually useless unless it is translated into suitable and stimulating learning experiences. Here again, the role of the supervisor is extremely important. He must know, and be prepared to interpret to others, acceptable criteria for the selection and continuous evaluation of desirable learning experiences. Applicable criteria seem to be very suitably portrayed in the following adaptation of a statement made by Hopkins.¹

1. The experience must begin with and grow out of the needs of the children. Such needs tend to be needs which the children themselves recognize and are aware of. They may be needs for knowledge, skill, expression, the satisfaction of an interest—any one or a pattern of needs.
2. It must be managed by all of the learners concerned—pupils, teachers, parents, and others—through co-operative, democratic interaction. Experiences in the modern school frequently draw in many people who do not give full time to the school. Parents contribute in many ways and so do many civic authorities, merchants, and others.
3. The experience must take on meaning and utility as the children's purposes become clearer and their work moves through one stage after another toward completion. At times children may purpose to do things which have relatively little meaning to them because of their meager experience, but as work progresses new understandings are

¹ *A Good Start in School*, Bulletin No. 226 (rev. ed.; Indianapolis, Ind.: State Dept. of Public Instruction, 1958), pp. 25-27.

added, horizons are pushed out, and the whole matter assumes new and lasting values.

4. The experience must aid each child to improve his purposes and to increase his power to make intelligent choices. Children's original choices may be trivial and of slight educative value because of their lack of experience and insight. As their work progresses, guided by a skillful and understanding teacher, the inherent value and meanings become apparent to the children and they purpose more and more wisely as their knowledge and insight grow. One of the major goals of all education is that of guiding the individual into even higher and finer purposing, ever better and more worthy choices.
5. The experience must aid each child to integrate past experience with present experience making all available for future use. Often, in the traditional school, learning has been of little permanent value because each skill or item of content was learned as a separate entity; the child failed to see its relationship to his past experience, hence, failed to utilize past experience to solve present problems. As a result, he saw little or no application of present learning to his own out-of-school experience and the life-value of the learning was negligible.
6. The experience must increase the number and variety of interests which each child consciously shares with others. One of the school's major tasks is that of opening up new areas of interest to children, helping them to adventure into new and untried avenues of experience. A democratic society is one in which the genius of one individual can be utilized to enrich the entire mass and in which the level attained by the society as a whole is the aggregate of the levels attained by the interacting individuals within the society. Therefore, it follows logically that the children need many rich experiences in co-operative interaction and sharing of experiences. When these shared experiences widen horizons and increase the number and variety of interests, their service is twofold.
7. The experience must help each child build new meanings and refine old ones. Real learning is forever a matter of adding new meanings and modifying old ones. If the addition and modification refine, enrich, and enlarge the total

fund of meanings which the child possesses, they add substantially to the working material which the child draws upon to understand and interpret other experiences.

8. The experience must offer opportunity for each child to use an ever-increasing variety of resources for learning. Sources for learning in life outside the school include people, first-hand and vicarious experiences, books, magazines, radio, movies, and many other avenues. The more resources a child learns to use under the guidance of the school the more readily and independently he will learn in his life outside the school.
9. The experience must aid each child to use a variety of learning activities which are suited to the resources he is using for learning. Children need to do wide and intensive reading, to work alone and in groups, to learn many skills and develop many abilities and to use those skills and abilities in many ways.
10. The experience must aid each child to reconstruct his past experience creatively as the new learning situation develops. Again, it is a matter of helping children to draw upon past experience to understand present experience and in so doing to enlarge and enrich the total concept.
11. The experience must challenge the thinking and call for the effort of the child to bring it to a satisfactory conclusion. Any really valuable experience is broad enough in the scope of its possibilities to provide worthwhile experience for the slowest learner and still challenge the more able learner and to cause him to exert himself willingly to solve the necessary problems and carry on the work. Children enjoy work which calls for effort and energy when they feel a need for it and understand its values.
12. The work must end with a satisfying emotional tone for each child. To work hard and intensively and to reach one's goal is highly satisfying to children as well as adults and that satisfaction provides a solid foundation for future work.

EVALUATING SUCCESSFUL TEACHING

Evaluation of a teacher's professional growth and performance is another important aspect of the supervisor's function. It may be said with justification that the best teaching is that which best motivates learning. This is a

permissible nutshell description of good teaching but the statement suffers somewhat from generalization and oversimplification. Actually, the teaching process is highly complex and composed of numerous elements, deficiency in any one of which may deter the total process.

A teacher's performance and the learning outcomes emanating from it may be influenced positively or negatively by many factors. Some of the components of successful teaching are related to what the teacher *is*; others are related to what the teacher *does*. In either case, the supervisor should be able to analyze the teaching-learning situation, to detect elements of skill or deficiency, and to assist in the modification of procedures in a mutually acceptable and profitable manner.

It is extremely difficult to translate successful teaching into words. However, several helpful descriptions of the attributes and activities of the successful teacher have been issued recently. The following outline represents a statement prepared at the meeting of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development in St. Louis in 1957 by a group considering the attributes of successful teaching.

WHAT CONSTITUTES GOOD TEACHING

As related to the teacher, the effective teacher:

1. Is actively conscious of the individuality of each child, including his needs, strengths, weaknesses, growth patterns, and background of experience.
2. Creates an atmosphere which is conducive to wholesome living and learning. This involves appropriate attention to the physical environment of the classroom, to the social and the emotional climate, and to the richness and flexibility of the program in terms of the utilization of a variety of learning materials and resources within and outside the school.
3. Provides opportunity for the active and continuous participation of each child in many aspects of the learning situation. Emphasis is placed on the desirability of providing opportunities for children to participate in such aspects of the teaching-learning situation as identification and clarification

of purposes, the use of problem-solving methods in a manner appropriate to each child's maturity level, creative expression, and individual and co-operative evaluation.

4. Is a high-quality person characterized by such attributes as: personal enthusiasm, sincerity, belief in people, consistency, interest in personal growth, positive attitudes toward change and experimentation, enthusiasm for teaching, and willingness to engage in self-evaluation.

As related to teaching, good teaching involves:

1. Recognizing the strengths and weaknesses of individual children to the point of capitalizing on strengths and providing for the elimination, insofar as possible, of the deficiencies.
2. Being consistent in one's attitudes toward children.
3. The identification, location, and utilization of all available resources for teaching—both material and human.
4. The willingness and capacity, on the part of the teacher, to continue growing and learning through experience and through capitalizing on professional opportunities for deepening insights and broadening understanding.
5. The ability to synchronize sound theoretical ideas with productive practical efforts and techniques.
6. Providing opportunities for children to learn for themselves through independent exploration and discovery.
7. Providing appropriate opportunities for creative activity.
8. Use of varied activities and materials for meeting the individual differences in learners.
9. Co-operative planning among staff and with children.
10. The careful study of children as a background for discovering and meeting their needs.
11. Turning mistakes into fruitful learning experiences.
12. Effective grouping of children in terms of educational purposes.
13. The willingness and imagination to be experimentally-minded.
14. Listening to children as a means of learning about them and their needs.
15. Assisting and encouraging children in the development of sound habits and attitudes conducive to physical and mental health.
16. Providing some means for utilizing free play and individual activities in the learning process.

17. A rich and meaningful environment for learning.
18. Providing functional opportunities whereby children learn to make wise choices.
19. A sincere love for, and understanding of children—and a faith in people and in the educational process.

EFFECTIVE GUIDANCE

Effective supervision not only evaluates procedures but also lends guidance in modifying them in the interest of *improved instruction*. This guidance function often becomes activated in the form of the supervisor-teacher conference but is also an essential ingredient of many of the other co-operative and group activities engaged in by members of a teaching staff. Most supervisors are afforded numerous opportunities to counsel with inexperienced teachers and to guide them toward healthier and happier professional experiences and satisfactions. In such instances, however, a supervisor or supervising teacher should be guided by the same considerations which prevail in all acceptable forms of counseling and guidance. The following list contains some of the major concepts and principles underlying effective guidance.²

1. The theory of individual differences is a fundamental concept of guidance which emphasizes that individual differences in capacities, abilities, and interests are of utmost significance.
2. Personal problems of individuals are usually problems which arise in their efforts to meet and to adjust to the demands of life and reality.
3. Guidance is not prescriptive, but aims at progressive ability for self-guidance in the individual. Guidance should aid a person to become increasingly adept in helping himself. Every phase of counseling should aid him to become more skilled in solving his own problems.
4. Good personnel work recognizes that a person becomes a free and effective citizen by exercising self-restraint rather than by having restraint imposed upon him by external au-

² This list is selected and adapted largely from one prepared by Robert H. Shaffer, Dean of Students, Indiana Univ., Bloomington, Ind.

- thorities. This implies the necessity of working through individuals and endeavoring to build within them standards of conduct and activity rather than attempting to force high standards upon them by authoritative statements and actions.
5. The belief that all individuals develop most and best by actively and intelligently participating in decisions affecting them and their activities underlies guidance work and democratic society.
 6. The increased understanding of the significant role that emotions play in human behavior underlies much guidance work of the present day. There is a continuous search in working with a person for the controlling features of his emotional life.
 7. Native abilities are not usually specialized, yet human activity in all fields is becoming increasingly specialized.
 8. The belief that it is a proper social aim to work for the maximum development of each and every individual is fundamental to guidance as well as to a democratic society. It is a function of guidance to attempt to furnish at all times to each individual an environment in which he can be and is stimulated to exert himself to develop his own unique personality limited only by the similar rights of others.
 9. Welfare and happiness of the individual are objectives that justify all social organization, and guidance expense is valid in that it contributes to the achievement of those important objectives.
 10. Persons engaged in guidance should remember that any aspect of the guidance processes might be the lead or key to the proper approach to the problem, and thus not ignore any phase of good procedure.
 11. Guidance is a life-long process.

Both in terms of scope and time, teacher education extends far beyond the college campus. Teachers are getting an increasing proportion of their applied forms of professional education from actual experiences in public schools under the guidance of supervising teachers. The nature of the professional guidance given these students in their early experiences in the classroom has a profound effect on their developing attitude toward teaching as well as on their ultimate orientation and success as a teacher.

Supervisory guidance continues to be a vital factor in the in-service development of the teacher after he is a full-fledged member of the profession. It is not expected that the beginning teacher immediately perform like a master teacher; it should be assumed that he will evidence a capacity for growth which will be most completely realized in a teaching situation which provides both opportunity for the operation of initiative and the necessary guidance for growth.

ANALYSIS OF THE SUPERVISORY PROCESS

The earlier parts of this chapter have been devoted to an overview of the general characteristics of supervision, the conditions which influence modern concepts of supervision, and some of the ways in which supervision is related to learning and teaching. At this point, it may be helpful to summarize these considerations by relating them to the three ways in which analyses of the supervisory process might be made. They are in relation to: (1) the needs for supervisory service; (2) the process of supervision; and (3) the products or outcomes of supervision.

NEEDS FOR SUPERVISORY SERVICES

Several historical influences have contributed to an increasing need for supervisory services in the schools of our country. Of these, at least four stand out as being directly related to the development of supervisory activity.

1. The broadening complexity of the educational task assumed by the schools of the United States. Whereas the early schools of this country were characterized by limited objectives and simple and direct teaching processes, modern schools have undertaken the achievement of broad goals encompassing skills, understandings, attitudes, and personal well-being which touch upon virtually every aspect of living. Quite naturally, this expansion of purpose has created the necessity for highly skilled teaching performance and efficiency of effort. As the tasks of teaching have become

broader and more complex, there has developed a corresponding need for professional assistance of the type which can be offered best through supervision.

2. Refinement of educational techniques through research. As indicated above, relatively simple concepts of teaching and learning dominated educational practice in the schools of an earlier day. Further development of the areas of the social sciences, however, has stimulated a considerable amount of research into the nature of the learning process. As a result, teaching has come to be recognized as a highly scientific process which requires not only a broad base of general, cultural information but also a working understanding of human behavior, the psychology of learning, and many other related competencies. Though modifications and improvements in teacher education have tended to provide for the development of these broad competencies in teachers, it is quite evident that teaching performance in the classroom always lags behind the frontiers of educational discovery and research. Therefore, much of the effort to keep the practices of teachers abreast of improved educational techniques must be exerted on the job. This recognition has meant that many school systems have attempted to meet this need by an expanding supervisory and consultant service.

3. The recognition of the unlimited possibilities in the area of teaching resources. With an increasing emphasis on "learning by doing" in modern education, the necessity has arisen for an examination of the suitability of limited, traditional types of teaching materials in their relation to the achievement of desired objectives. Though textbook teaching has continued to dominate classroom practice, there has been an increasing trend toward supplementing such materials, valuable as they are, with many other types of instructional materials, the detailed use of which will be described in a later chapter. It seems sufficient for our immediate purpose, merely to indicate that, with the increasing discovery of the vital usefulness of varied teaching-

learning resources, supervisors are in a position to render great service in assisting in the location and adaptation of such materials for local use.

4. The centralization process as it has affected school organization. The organization, administration, and program of the small school have been exceedingly simple and direct in nature. In the typical one-room school which has been so prevalent until recently in this country, all operations of the school were the responsibility of a single teacher. As schools have been consolidated into much larger units, however, the administration and organization of the school have become much more complex and demanding. As a result, the administrative and business aspects of the job of the administrator have been so overwhelming that he has found it increasingly difficult to maintain direct contact with the instructional program of the school. This development, along with the others mentioned above, has led to the employment of personnel whose major duties are directly related to the co-ordination and improvement of instruction.

PROCESS OF SUPERVISION

An examination of the literature will reveal that supervision is defined typically as a process. At least, it is difficult to make any thorough analysis of supervision without considering the kinds of activities which are performed in the name of supervisory service. In the introductory part of this chapter, an attempt was made to identify some of the more general characteristics of the process of supervision. These might well be supplemented, however, by a few other types of activity which are involved in the total process of supervision. At least four of these are related to the function of the supervisor in his relationship to the school program.

The *leadership process* is a vital element of supervisory service. Leadership implies neither domination of the group

nor an abdication of responsibility. Though the true leader will seldom dictate, he will often guide. The power to generate the spark of professional curiosity or to furnish supporting incentives for co-operative attack on mutual problems often rests with the supervisor who visualizes his job as one of leadership. He will in no way, however, negate the possibility of utilizing at every opportunity the kinds of special leadership which may emerge from the group if conditions permit the wholesome operation of the shared concept of leadership.

Supervision is a *co-ordinating process*. It has been pointed out many times that co-ordination is more to be desired than conformity in providing proper conditions for group effort in education. Supervision may be thought of as a process which establishes common denominators of thought and action without destroying the individuality of thought or the proper independence of action. Part of the process of supervision, at least, involves the reconciliation of extremes into a situation of workable consensus.

A third component of supervision is the *counseling process*. The modern supervisor cannot escape the advisory nature of his position. Individuals naturally look to him for guidance in formulating plans, and for advice in meeting problems. Most of the value that can accrue from teacher-supervisor conferences lies in the ability of the supervisor to utilize the counseling process without damaging the morale of the teacher. Even many of the group approaches to supervision involve certain phases of counseling.

Finally, supervision must be considered an *evaluative process*. This is not to imply that it is the primary task of the supervisor to rate the proficiency of teachers; rather, it is more accurate to suggest that the major task of supervision is to maintain a spirit of continuous evaluation in all that is done in the program, as it applies to individuals and to the program as a whole. Basically, it must be remembered that the only true approach to improvement is the evaluation of existing programs and conditions.

OUTCOMES OF SUPERVISION

Some persons insist that the best notion of what supervision is can be gained from an examination and analysis of what it *does*. Certainly, no thoroughly adequate description of modern supervision could ignore its outcomes. It may be of some value, therefore, to indicate some of the specific outcomes which might be expected of an effective program of supervisory services in a school system. Some of these are:

1. An increasing indication of a sound philosophy of education which permeates and underlies the purposes and practices characterizing the school
2. Evidence of existing purposes which guide the program of the school, and toward which the staff as a whole are willing to devote their individual efforts
3. The presence of stimulating and pleasant working conditions
4. A high quality of human relations among various members of the staff
5. The effectiveness of the group process as it is applied to policy-development, decision-making, and problem-solving
6. A continuous effort to improve the curriculum through activities ranging from system-wide study to classroom practice
7. Evidence of the co-operative approach to evaluation
8. General acceptance of the responsibility by the entire staff for the constructive interpretation of the school program as a whole.

SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVING UNDERSTANDING OF THE CHARACTERISTICS OF MODERN SUPERVISION

1. Confer with one or more persons engaged in school supervision to get firsthand information about how a supervisor visualizes his responsibilities.
2. Visit a school system to observe some of the activities of supervisory personnel.
3. Find out about the purposes and work of professional organizations in the field of supervision such as the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Examine peri-

odicals and yearbooks and special bulletins of such organizations for helpful materials.

4. Attend conferences which are held to consider supervisory or curriculum problems and developments.
5. Consult personnel workers whom you may know to get additional information about recent developments in supervision and personnel work outside the field of education.
6. Contact an audio-visual distribution center to find out about films which depict the nature of supervision.

SELECTED REFERENCES

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Chapter 2

Guiding Principles of Supervision

Education is a complex process. The success of educational effort is dependent upon numerous factors. Some of the components of the educational process are obvious and fairly predictable in their effects; others are quite variable and elusive and not always even identifiable. At best it is a formidable challenge for educators to provide a program of educational experiences which will guarantee to all a maximum chance of success in realizing the generally accepted goals of education.

One of the difficulties of trying to reduce the educational process to any type of set patterns or procedures may be sensed readily by examining comparatively the philosophic and psychological concepts under which schools operate. Philosophically, the American way of life is based on the education of the masses which is another way of stating that all the children of all the people shall have an opportunity for an education suited to their potentials. It is believed that such a philosophy is not only essential to the preservation and perpetuation of a "government of the people, for the people, by the people" but also that it represents the soundest concept of educational and social justice. In view of this philosophy, and in spite of minor and sporadic deviations from its intent, American schools have been increasingly populated with children of varying degrees of ability and background. They have become

more and more educational melting pots—within which honest attempts have been made increasingly to provide proper educational experiences for all who seek them.

In contrast to our dedication to the philosophic ideal of providing good education for the masses, there has been a growing tendency to emphasize the psychological importance of individual differences. It is often pointed out that learning is largely an individual matter and that the essence of good teaching is the tailoring of learning experiences to the individual needs of children. Certainly this is an educational consideration which cannot be ignored. However, it appears to be the task of organized educational agencies to provide a program of instruction for children which will be based on a suitable reconciliation of societal and individual concerns. In attempting to develop a common philosophy to promote such an approach and to organize the machinery to implement the philosophy, many problems and frustrations arise. This seems inevitable when one analyzes carefully the complexity of the situation.

Historically, the development of the educational process, and related attempts to adapt the process to mass production, have focused attention on three aspects of organization and operation: the formulation of guiding principles, the development of policies, and the refinement of techniques. It may be profitable to examine each of these in relation to its function and to the processes of teaching and supervision.

Principles serve to guide effort. They provide a sense of direction and serve as the boundaries which keep efforts and energies confined to relevant issues and activities. In effect, a set of principles constitutes the platform which serves as the basis for determining appropriate action.

Policies, though related to principles, have quite a different function. It is the purpose of policy to provide for consistency of action within the framework, and in terms of the directions indicated by stated principles. Policies contribute to efficiency through eliminating the necessity for new decisions each time similar situations arise.

Techniques are the processes through which principles and policies are implemented. Methodology and procedures of teaching and supervision are forms of techniques. *They are the means through which attempts are made to solve problems or achieve goals.* Techniques appear to be more soundly conceived and more effectively utilized when they are developed in accordance with guiding principles.

The supervisor needs a thorough understanding of guiding principles at three levels, since all three are involved in the processes of supervision. They are the principles of: learning, teaching, and supervision. Only the third of these is elaborated here since the other two are more fully developed in later chapters. It seems desirable, however, to call preliminary attention to a few very basic principles of learning and teaching at this point.

RELATION OF SUPERVISION TO LEARNING AND TEACHING

ASPECTS OF LEARNING

The principles of learning growing out of the cumulative study of psychology are numerous. Some of these principles are cited elsewhere in this book. Three general principles, however, seem so basically prerequisite to a consideration of teaching and supervision that they are included here for brief discussion.

Learning is purposeful. The normal life process of staking out goals and striving for their achievement is also the essence of the learning process. The motivation of human beings stems largely not from what they have but from what they desire to have. *Wishes and hopes are the natural forerunners of enthusiastic effort.* If the learner sees in an activity the promise of benefits in keeping with his purposes he directs his efforts willingly in the direction of achieving his purposes; if he fails to see in such an activity any relationship to his own purposes, his interest and efforts are diminished accordingly.

Learning is experiential. Learning occurs through experience, or more accurately, through reaction to experience. The involvement and activity of the learner are an essential aspect of effective learning. Obviously, learning can be guided and motivated through teaching, but it cannot be effectively imposed on an unwilling and unco-operative recipient. This principle is very closely related to teaching methodology and, for that matter, to supervisory activity designed to improve teaching—and has obvious implications for both.

Learning is associative. The process of learning is associative in terms of two related considerations: (1) learning is most effective when things to be learned are related to things already known, and (2) learning is most effective when things to be learned are related to each other. The latter principle sometimes is referred to as the "integration concept." It is the psychological basis for the unit, core, or broad-fields approaches to classroom organization and has many implications for educational methodology and resources.

ASPECTS OF TEACHING

In the previous chapter certain attributes of teaching were pointed out in their relation to concepts of supervision held today. It is possible to go further and to suggest that the basic principles of supervision, such as those discussed in the subsequent part of this chapter, rest heavily on principles of teaching and learning. Just as effective teaching is based on an intelligent appraisal of how and why learners respond as they do, supervision is affected also by the understanding of the processes of learning and teaching by the supervisor.

Teaching is basically the effective application of sound principles of learning. It is the administration of learning through planning, guiding and motivating, and evaluating. Teaching probably is at its best:

1. When planning is co-operative. To the extent that the experience and maturity of learners permits, co-operative planning of learning experience is an integral part of effective teaching and learning. Such planning offers the learner the opportunity to understand the purposes of proposed activities and adapt them to his own situation.
 2. When guidance is subtle. Most people, children included, have considerable aversion to coercion or even strong direction. It is a boost to one's ego to assume that he is being somewhat independent and self-directive in his activity. This is not to imply that a learner never realizes a need for guidance. Actually, quite the opposite is true. It is necessary, however, and quite possible for guidance to be given in such a manner that it does not create issues or stimulate the rebellious attitude. Rather, it can be given in such a way as to give strength and security to the learner in his attempts to become self-directive.
 3. When motivation is intrinsic. While learning can be stimulated by external rewards and incentives, it is generally agreed that the outcomes of learning are more useful and enduring if purposes are largely intrinsic. Naturally, this consideration varies with the maturity of the learner and the purpose of the thing to be learned, but enough has been discovered about the learning process to suggest the value of capitalizing on intrinsic interests of the learner.
- When evaluation is twofold. In recent years, much emphasis has been placed on self-evaluation. Undoubtedly, it is desirable to shift the emphasis from earlier forms of rigidly imposed grading systems to a process which involves the learner in the appraisal process. The problem of evaluation, however, is not one which can be solved by sole dependence on either teacher evaluation or learner evaluation. To be effective, it must involve both, since both are vital participants in the other phases of the learning process.

The principles which guide effective teaching may be usefully applied to supervision. The chief difference lies in the maturity of the persons involved in each phase of the educational process. Mehl, Mills, and Douglass have suggested five considerations which should guide teaching

methodology.¹ These seem to apply equally well to the practices of the supervisor and thus are included here with some comment.

1. *Teaching should proceed from the simple to the complex.* For all general purposes good teaching practice tries to build an understanding of more complicated matters on the basis of less profound matters already learned. Such teaching rests heavily on the ability to provide learning experiences, or opportunities for growth, which are related to the stage of growth already achieved. Obviously, this principle has a direct implication for ways in which a supervisor works with his co-workers.
2. *Teaching should proceed from the concrete to the abstract.* It is generally accepted as a fact that intellectual growth and maturity are closely related to the ability to cope with abstract ideas. Similarly, lack of maturity usually demands correspondingly greater attention to the provision of learning opportunities involving concreteness. In a somewhat similar manner, all types of professional maturity are related to a scale of activity ranging from matters of an immediate and concrete nature to those basically concerned with the consideration of theoretical ideas. A wise teacher or supervisor often will sense the need for utilizing concrete experiences as a basis for a developing understanding of values, generalizations, and principles.
3. *Teaching should proceed from the near to the remote.* Ideas which concern things close at hand are usually learned most readily. This may be partly due to the fact that concepts ordinarily are built from experience and learners usually have relatively more experience with matters of an immediate nature than with those more remote. This principle has many implications for adult learners as well as for children and thus is related to the process of supervision through which adults presumably extend their understanding.
4. *Teaching should proceed from the fundamental to the accessory.* Most persons agree that fundamental considerations should be given proportionately greater emphasis in education. The difficulty comes from the differences of opinion as

¹ Marie A. Mehl, Hubert H. Mills, and Harl R. Douglass, *Teaching in Elementary School* (2d ed.; New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1958), p. 103.

to what is fundamental. It is possible, however, to obtain rather general agreement concerning many of the elements of the school program. Certainly some of these deserve greater attention than others. Likewise, the supervisor, in working with his associates, should never sacrifice basic considerations for the sake of operational trivia. If learners, or adult staff members for that matter, can be assisted to understand some of the fundamental concepts and processes to be acquired, a good basis is formed for the further refinement of understanding and practice through the acquisition of secondary knowledge.

5. *Teaching should proceed from the psychological to the logical.* While the organization of learning experiences obviously should be adapted to desired objectives and prevailing conditions, it is generally conceded that psychological considerations are more important than logical considerations in the usual teaching-learning process. This is not to state or imply that there is no place for logic in the formulation of plans and procedures for teaching; it is intended to suggest that the *approach* to learning usually should be definitely psychological. Simply stated, this is merely to insist that people be given an opportunity to learn in the manner in which learning is best facilitated. It can be readily seen that this principle has many ramifications for the process of supervision since much of the concern of supervision is changed performance of teachers and learners.

PRINCIPLES OF SUPERVISION

In the previous chapter, considerable attention was given to modern concepts of supervision and to some of the general considerations with which it is concerned. At this point, it is considered desirable to extend this attempt to characterize modern supervision by calling attention to a number of principles which are related to the operation of supervision in the school. It is assumed that such principles may well serve as a general platform on which later discussions of supervisory techniques and practices may rest.

—*Supervision has no meaning until it has purpose.* The whole process of supervision is unjustified and wasteful unless it has a particular, worthy task to perform. A super-

which occurs when no provision is made for orderly co-ordination of effort. Actually, the two types of leadership support each other. A reasonable sense of direction by the status leader often lends to members of the staff a feeling of security and stability which encourages leadership efforts of their own. Similarly, many supervisory leaders have found that the encouragement which they give to members of the staff to furnish leadership in various facets of the school program actually results in the creation of an atmosphere of mutual respect which in turn promotes acceptance of ideas presented by the leader. Certainly, it can be assumed that truly effective supervision utilizes the values which accrue from both the status leadership role of the supervisor and the shared contributing leadership which is derived from the group.

Effective supervisory processes must operate within the context of the prevailing situation. Supervision is always a means to an end rather than an end in itself. This assertion carries the implication that the defining attributes of supervision are determined largely by the situation in which it operates. This is generally conceded to be an essential relationship if one is to gain the most from supervisory effort. It often has been stated that one cannot organize a situation except in terms of the elements contained in the situation. Similarly, one cannot carry out supervisory activities except in relation to the elements of the situation, the total situation, and the interrelationships which exist.

The school program is operated within the framework of many contextual arrangements. In the first place, the vertical, or historical context of the situation must be considered. No supervisor can approach his task in a school system intelligently unless he has given some attention to the historical development of that particular school program. Constructive supervision is based on some understanding of the past experiences of the staff in working together, of the nature and extent of curriculum evaluation

and planning, and of community traditions and activities which affect the school.

Effective supervision also is related to a context of current conditions. The attitudes of the staff, the availability of resources, and the adequacy of the curriculum all are factors which need to be surveyed and appraised as a basis for establishing a workable program of supervision. As a corollary to this consideration, the importance of community orientation of supervision can hardly be overemphasized.

Professional leaders engaged in supervision cannot afford to ignore the societal connotations of education and of supervision. Although it is natural for supervisors to become vitally interested and engrossed in the technical, day-to-day aspects of their work, those whose activities reflect an awareness of the societal context of their efforts appear to be most stimulating and productive.

Modern supervision operates in terms of a context of unified professional effort. The team approach to problem-solving and an active faith in the ability of people to contribute to the solutions of their own problems lie at the very heart of supervision as it is conceived today.

Supervision is concerned with the total teaching-learning situation. Modern supervision represents a notable shift in emphasis from that of giving primary attention to imposing or "selling" specific techniques to a broader effort to assist teachers in formulating and applying workable principles of teaching and learning. It is no longer assumed that improvement automatically accompanies the supervisor's insistence on particular practices by teachers; it is felt, rather, that it is the task of the supervisor to open up new vistas of professional procedures from which teachers may discover the resources for their own improvement in methodology.

Strong emphasis on the total teaching-learning situation, however desirable, is not intended to preclude some attention to the components which combined make up the total situation. Obviously, it is often the role of supervision to

focus attention on the child, the teacher, or on any other element of the situation which affects educational outcomes. Such attention should be given, however, without losing sight of the total enterprise within which these are viewed.

Effective supervisory effort is closely related to functional problems which exist among staff members. The value placed on supervisory assistance is determined largely by the recognized relationship of such assistance to problems commonly encountered by teachers. Teachers tend to accept as valuable those ideas and activities which can be readily identified with felt needs and recognized obstacles; similarly, many teachers are prone to reject the facets of supervision whose connection with teaching problems seems vague or farfetched.

It is particularly important that this relationship to functional problems be recognized in the initial stages of establishing a supervisory program in the school. By using some of the more urgent problems of the school as the springboard for a co-operative study of the school situation, the supervisor can go far toward providing a sound basis for general acceptance of further supervisory activity. It is necessary, of course, to insure that this principle not be carried to the point of focusing undue attention and expending unjustified effort on matters of only passing or trivial concern. Yet it is equally important to make each teacher feel that his problems, though perhaps not broad in scope, will not be ignored as being unworthy of attention. It should be remembered that the size of the problem usually increases in relation to a teacher's proximity to it. What may seem trivial to one member of a staff may be a genuine obstacle to the professional performance of another.

Modern supervision emphasizes co-operation as a mutually conceived process. The concept of co-operation is not always sharply defined by persons who use the term or discuss the practice. Too often, co-operation appears to be defined as "doing as I would like you to do." When a supervisor complains that a particular teacher "will not co-operate with me," the implication of a one-way process is

much too clear. The "we" and "our" approach as a supervisor works with his associates is a vital factor in the creation and maintenance of an atmosphere which is conducive to high morale. Certainly it is just as essential, in the modern school, for the supervisor to work with the staff as for the staff to work with the supervisor, if not more important. Ideally, of course, the best results are achieved when all participating members work happily and effectively together.

Modern supervision places high relative value on the involvement of individual members of the group in co-operative planning, decision-making, and problem-solving. The development and expanding use of modern supervisory techniques have made it increasingly clear that the directive, authoritarian approach to supervision has very marked limitations for the improvement of instruction. Verbal admonitions and paternalistic advice, however sound, appear to have little effect in changing the behavior of individuals upon whom they are bestowed. More and more, it is becoming clear that actual participation in a process is a very effective means of promoting an understanding of that process. Furthermore, such involvement bears a direct relationship to the generation of interest in the participant and thus is an important factor in motivation.

Supervisors who try to be "all things to all people" through their own efforts are neglecting one of the basic tenets of modern supervision. Just as the learner learns through his own activity, so do teachers also improve their proficiencies through involvement in constructive professional activity in which they see purpose and meaning.

Modern supervision is committed to the concept of shared responsibility. The two foregoing principles emphasize the importance of co-operation and involvement in the supervisory process. Actually, however, both of these practices must be carried to the point of sharing responsibility for making decisions, and for assuming responsibility for such decisions, if the real essence of modern supervision is to be demonstrated.

A distinction should be made between the policy-making function and the administrative function. Undoubtedly, a group should be given the opportunity to share responsibility and pool resources for the development of suitable policies to guide the school program. This process of policy development, however, should not be confused with the process of administrative implementation in which status leaders and others have assigned responsibilities.

One of the basic characteristics of effective supervision is the team approach to problem-solving. The sharing of ideas and responsibility, however, depends rather heavily on the security of members of the group, the degree of mutual respect present in the situation, and the general morale of the group. Insecure, anxious teachers are not quick to admit that they have problems, nor are they eager to seek help from associates whose success they look upon with envy. At this point, it is sufficient to point out the direct relationship between staff morale and the willingness to assume the obligations of shared responsibility. In later sections of this book, detailed treatment is given to the implications of this principle for specific supervisory practice.

Modern supervision is a nonpatterned process. In a volume which purports to delineate the purposes and processes of educational supervision, it may seem a bit paradoxical to suggest that supervision at its best is a "many-splendored thing." Accurately speaking, it is not a process but a multi-process. Many of the techniques of supervision must be devised or adapted in terms of the particular situation in which they are to be employed. Professional activities which may be quite effective in one situation may be wholly inadequate under different circumstances. Both the supervisor and the processes of supervision, therefore, must be characterized by sufficient flexibility to adapt to the unique conditions and challenges of each particular situation as it exists.

The reluctance to accept as wholly suitable any single set of supervisory techniques or approaches for all situa-

tions should not be construed as support for the opinion that supervision should be completely unstructured and unplanned. Such is not the case. The author would reiterate here the need for continuous planning in relation to intelligent supervision. Much of such planning, of course, must be done in terms of the immediate problem under consideration or in relation to the specific objectives to be achieved. As long as the supervisor subscribes to the necessity for diagnosing first as a basis for further action, he is not likely to become the victim of a preconceived, stereotyped approach to supervision.

Effective supervision requires the release of the professional potentials of teachers. Even if it were possible to do so, it is not the purpose of modern supervision to furnish teachers pat answers to their questions and neatly packaged solutions to their problems. The aim of supervision is more nearly that of creating the conditions under which teachers can discover for themselves the most promising means for improving their accomplishments in the classroom. Teachers with instructional problems may have their effectiveness further diminished by the development of a feeling of inferiority or insecurity. Constructive supervisory assistance can contribute substantially to the alleviation and possible elimination of such feelings to the point that teachers may have confidence in their own abilities re-established. When this occurs, the groundwork is laid for the gradual release of potential powers which even the teacher may not have been conscious of possessing.

A simple interpretation of the above principle is merely that one of the major functions of supervision is to help people do the best they can through bringing into use the full array of resources available to them. As will be pointed out more fully in later parts of this volume, it is essential that supervisors be keenly aware of the necessity for the positive approach if they are to help individuals develop their capacities to the fullest possible extent.

Attention to sequence and continuity is essential to effective supervision. Just as teaching methods must be

geared carefully to the maturity and developmental stage of the learner, the methodology of supervision must reflect a recognition of the stage of professional maturity of staff members with whom a supervisor works. The level of understanding and the amount of experience of each teacher are essential considerations in evaluating and diagnosing teaching performance. It is more important for teachers to be growing professionally than for them to have reached any particular stage of conformity to expected standards. Certainly it is necessary for the supervisor to remember that most types of proficiency are developed through sequential and gradual steps or stages. To make unrealistic demands which are too far beyond the professional development of a teacher is to entertain an expectation which has little chance of being realized. Gearing professional demands and activities to the maturity levels of teachers is an earmark of intelligent supervision.

Effective supervisory activity requires a reasonable degree of professional focus. Although the element of flexibility is of primary importance in planning supervisory programs, it is equally important to provide the means for concentrating on specific problems and projects. Without some systematic means for focusing attention on pertinent matters, the supervisory program is likely to lack both purpose and co-ordination. There are many ways of encouraging group identification of a problem area. Some of these approaches are quite highly organized; others are more informal and casual, depending largely on the size of the school system. For example, many schools make a "teaching-problem survey" prior to organizing co-operative curriculum study plans. In a similar manner, a series of informal discussion seminars, often in co-operation with a college or university, are held by a school staff as a means of defining and delimiting problems to be attacked.

The selection of suitable foci of supervisory effort should be based, informally at least, on pertinent criteria. Though it is not feasible at this point to elaborate fully on the details of establishing criteria for this purpose, it does seem worth-

while to suggest that such things as significance, universality of interest, and susceptibility to improvement be considered when making decisions affecting problem selection and emphasis.

A recognition of individual differences is an essential factor in effective supervision. So much attention has been given to group process and the co-operative approach in modern supervision that some may have developed a tendency to discount the value of the individual approach. Gradual acceptance of the idea of individual difference in learners has been generally achieved, but there still exists considerable evidence that conformity is the goal of many who work with adults in supervisory capacities.

Not all problems are group problems. Indeed, some of the more crucial problems of teachers, in terms of teaching effectiveness, are highly individualized in nature. The wise supervisor will recognize this fact and be guided accordingly in his attempts to maintain a balance between the group approach to supervision and activities which are designed to alleviate individual problems.

Modern supervision is committed to the positive approach in human relations. It is difficult, if not impossible, to achieve positive results through negative means. This has been demonstrated rather clearly both in the realms of child behavior and in the field of personnel work at the adult level. The day of the frightening supervisor whose classroom inspections were characterized by a spirit of condescension and negative criticism is over. Modern supervisors recognize the necessity for capitalizing on the strengths of persons with whom they work. Since ineffective teaching is usually accompanied by feelings of insecurity and a certain amount of emotional tension, the net effect of the negative approach usually is to add to the ineffectiveness of the teacher by aggravating the existing emotional problem.

Supervision is increasingly defined in terms of the positive approach. This may be seen in the marked emphasis on assistance rather than inspection, on development rather

than dictation, and on self-evaluation rather than on imposed ratings. These are wholesome developments in the field of supervision, although they do not negate completely the infrequent necessity, of course, of the direct identification of a teacher's weaknesses. All in all, however, most intelligent supervisors have discovered that undue emphasis on faults and weaknesses produces very few results of a commendable sort.

Interaction is the very heart of modern supervision. Great strides have been made in recent years in the refinement of the group process. The whole field of group dynamics has many implications for effective supervisory procedures in the modern school. Basic to the modern approach is the creation of optimum conditions for useful interaction since many supervisory procedures involve the sharing of decision-making and the pooling of ideas and resources. Curriculum development has become more and more co-operative in nature. Problem-solving has become a group enterprise in the modern school.

Communication is basic to effective interaction. Although every effort should be made to help people develop the skills of clear communication, much of such ability comes as a result of working together. By providing for meetings in which staff members may comfortably interchange ideas, the supervisor is contributing to the further development of the ability of members of the group to communicate well.

Modern supervision is evolutionary rather than revolutionary in character. Attempts to bring about immediate change in education are highly ineffectual even if such sudden change is considered to be desirable. Though constructive change in educational practice seems discouragingly slow at times, it is probably fortunate that the educational profession is not unduly quick to accept proposed change. In some instances, at least, this reluctance to change may serve as a protection against the effects of purely whimsical educational opinion or radical and unfounded innovation. Assuming, however, that most proposed educational change is desirable and based on thought-

ful study and research, the best guarantee for bringing such ideas to the point of action lies in a more gradual and evolutionary approach rather than in demands for overnight acceptance and implementation.

Considerateness is a basic element in modern supervision. It is impossible to implement the democratic philosophy of supervision without giving attention to the importance of being considerate. The elements of kindness, respect, and charity are essential tenets of religious faith and of the democratic way of life. Since the American public school is committed to democracy as a way of living together, it is essential that educational practices at all levels reflect a devotion to these basic tenets.

A regard for the feelings of others is vital to the work of the supervisor. Modern supervision is based on the recognition of the importance of individuals, and the importance of individuals being able to live and work together harmoniously. This can be done only if an attitude of consideration for others is developed to the point where it permeates the technical and mechanical aspects of teaching and supervision.

✓ *Modern supervision assumes that more may be accomplished through consensus than by strict adherence to majority opinion.* The goal of modern supervision is to establish a common area of purpose, communication, and understanding to the end that individual efforts of staff members may be effectively co-ordinated and continuously improved through the processes of interaction. Although, undoubtedly, there are times when a group must resort to an expression of majority opinions as the only means of arriving at a necessary decision, the aims of supervision and the purposes of education usually can be best served by an attempt to establish a consensus as a basis for subsequent decisions. This process, of course, requires "give-and-take" which is only possible if the supervisor and staff are aware of some of the primary ramifications of the modern concept of supervision.

Modern supervision is based on continuous evaluation.

If evaluation is to serve as the chief basis for determining the nature and direction of proposed changes in education, it must be a never-ending process. Furthermore, it must be applied to all phases of the educational enterprise. It involves the evaluation of the total program, of learning, of teaching, and of the supervisory process itself. The more detailed application of this principle appears in Chapters 6 and 13.

Modern supervision is dedicated to a continual search for improved educational techniques. Educational research increasingly is establishing facts and uncovering possibilities related to improvement in education. Through effective supervision it is possible to share these revelations and to encourage local action research which will, in turn, make a concrete contribution to the widening pool of knowledge concerning education and its processes.

LOCAL SUPERVISORY PRINCIPLES

The general principles of supervision, such as those cited in this chapter, can represent little more than a framework of basic considerations which should guide supervisory services and procedures. Occasionally, however, a group of educators has produced a set of principles to guide local supervisory activities. One such set of principles was devised by personnel from a city school system who participated in an in-service seminar in supervision.²

1. Supervision should be kept adaptable and flexible in terms of:
 - a. the local situation
 - b. the experience of teachers
 - c. the particular problems of teachers
 - d. the personalities and attitudes of teachers
 - e. available instructional materials.
2. Supervision should improve instruction through:
 - a. making teachers and pupils feel comfortable

² From a statement compiled by R. L. Springer and Hanne J. Hicks from materials developed by members of an in-service workshop of teachers, supervisors, and administrators of the Indianapolis Public Schools.

- b. encouraging teachers to consider newer methods and practices
 - c. encouraging teachers to innovate
 - d. making available and interpreting improved instructional materials and resources
 - e. encouraging self-evaluation on the part of the teacher
 - f. discovering and developing potential leadership
 - g. discovering and encouraging special strengths of teachers
 - h. helping teachers to see the value of immediate and long-range planning.
3. Supervision should stimulate good human relations through:
- a. creating mutual respect and confidence
 - b. recognition of individual differences among teachers
 - c. tolerance of opposing viewpoints
 - d. co-operative thinking, planning, and evaluating
 - e. encouraging maximum growth in areas of greatest strength.
4. Supervision should develop the power of self-confidence and a feeling of security through:
- a. providing adequate materials
 - b. providing recognition and commendation for constructive efforts
 - c. providing opportunity for leadership
 - d. contributing to a sense of personal achievement and pride
 - e. creating situations that foster a feeling of mutual respect among teachers and co-workers
 - f. sharing of knowledge of current school policies
 - g. encouraging teachers to share common problems.
5. Supervision should develop the power of self-evaluation through:
- a. freedom in seeking help
 - b. co-operative planning of objectives
 - c. stimulating the desire for growth on the job
 - d. cultivating an objective attitude
 - e. providing knowledge of total school situation and conditions.
6. Supervision should promote the growth of both pupils and teachers through:
- a. providing a continuous challenge
 - b. exhibiting attributes of growth
 - c. providing recognition for evidences of growth

- d. encouraging self-evaluation
- e. providing resources of all types
- f. providing the experiences that make for growth
- g. encouraging teachers to accept professional responsibilities outside the classroom
- h. encouraging teachers to accept responsibilities outside the classroom
 - i. encouragement of creative activities
 - j. encouraging experimentation.
- 7. Supervision should contribute to the building of high morale through:
 - a. teacher participation in formulation of building policy
 - b. joint consideration of major physical changes such as audio-visual equipment, parking facilities, public address system, playground equipment, school uniforms, etc.
 - c. adequate attention to physical well-being of teachers, i.e.:
 - (1) teachers' lounge
 - (2) adequate compensation for extracurricular duties
 - (3) equitable teaching and curriculum load.
- 8. Supervision should provide an effective and well-planned in-service program through:
 - a. continuous series of meetings related to interpreting curricular guides
 - b. meetings designed to meet the felt needs of specific groups
 - c. making use of instructional materials and techniques in demonstrations by successful teachers
 - d. teacher participation in planning in-service programs.
- 9. Supervision should stimulate and provide opportunities for all to reach their maximum potentialities through:
 - a. becoming acquainted with the teacher and coming to know her background
 - b. recognition of the teacher's talents
 - c. conferences (outside the classroom) to determine, e.g.:
 - (1) educational philosophy
 - (2) type of help desired
 - (3) community orientation
 - (4) building policies
 - (5) consultant or supervisory services
 - (6) explanation of services of professional organizations
 - (7) constructive instructional practices
 - (8) long- and short-term planning.

10. Supervision should keep abreast of present trends and inform those being supervised of these trends through:
 - a. attendance at state and national meetings, i.e.:
 - (1) ASCD
 - (2) ACEI
 - (3) National Council for Teachers of Mathematics
 - (4) National Council for Teachers of Social Studies
 - (5) National Council for Teachers of English
 - (6) National Council for Teachers of Science
 - (7) NEA
 - b. attendance at local meetings such as:
 - (1) spring conferences
 - (2) workshops
 - (3) area meetings (subject matter, general topics)
 - c. recent publications of books and magazines
 - d. attendance at clinics, seminars, and university classes
 - e. visual aids.
11. Supervision should encourage creative teaching through:
 - a. encouraging classroom experimentations
 - b. recognizing special talents of teachers
 - c. assisting in locating stimulating professional references
 - d. sharing noteworthy ideas of teachers.
12. Supervision should contribute to a common understanding of objectives through:
 - a. co-operative efforts in formulating school purposes
 - b. frequent opportunities to study and re-evaluate purposes and outcomes
 - c. provisions for effective communication throughout the school system
 - d. provisions for constant interpretation of school policies throughout the system.
13. Supervision, in its evaluative processes, should:
 - a. consider the purposes of learning activities and instructional methods
 - b. take into account all attributes of strength or weakness on the part of the teacher as well as total effectiveness
 - c. consider evaluation as a point of departure for improvement
 - d. utilize self-evaluation by teachers as much as possible in the total evaluative process.

14. Supervision should promote the democratic way of life through:
 - a. respect for individuals
 - b. provisions for effective group decisions
 - c. demonstrating democracy in all its processes.

SUGGESTIONS FOR DEVELOPING A BETTER UNDERSTANDING OF THE PRINCIPLES OF SUPERVISION

1. Collect several statements of supervisory principles and try to determine the degree to which they are in agreement.
2. Compare the principles of supervision which appear in the current literature with those which describe the processes of supervision of an earlier period in this country.
3. Try to determine in what ways changes in supervision correspond to changes in the social, cultural, or economic life of this country.
4. Critically examine the principles set forth in this chapter in terms of the activities of supervisory programs you have observed. Try to analyze the reasons for any discrepancies you discover.

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Part II

THE SUPERVISOR:
HIS RESOURCES AND RELATIONS

Chapter 3

Resources of the Supervisor

The story is told of a young nobleman who was destined soon to become the ruler of his country. Prior to ascending the throne he approached one of his respected elders to seek advice as to the prime requisite for reigning over his people with equity and justice. Pondering his query only momentarily, the wise old man admonished the young monarch as follows: "To be a great ruler, you must first be a great person." Much the same idea is contained in an oft-repeated quotation of more modern vintage to the effect that "what you are speaks so loudly I cannot hear what you say." While neither of these quotations was initially uttered in connection with supervision as such, both hold very real implications for it.

The process and results of supervision can be little better than the qualities and competencies of the person who does the supervising. To expect a lethargic person to generate zeal in others is to go far beyond intelligent hope or the evidence provided by experience in such matters. Similarly, it is highly improbable that a person of limited competence in a particular area of performance can be highly effective in assisting others in the development of high-level competencies. Certainly, this is especially true in the field of education, where the understandings and skills of the teaching practitioner presumably are to be affected positively through the efforts of supervisory personnel.

In view of the established relationship between the attributes and the results obtained by supervisory personnel, this chapter is devoted to the exploration of (1) some of the basic considerations involved in this relationship, (2) some desirable personal attributes essential to supervisors, (3) the background and professional resources needed, and (4) some of the avenues through which supervisors may grow in acquiring the tools for effective supervision.

BASIC CONSIDERATIONS OF SUPERVISORY RESOURCES

One of the most valued tenets of the American way of life is that which emphasizes the value and importance of people as people and individuals as individuals. Certainly most educators would agree that the chief ingredient of the educational process at any level is the interaction of people. Specifically, the most important factor in learning is the learner; the most vital element in teaching is the teacher; and the most essential contributor to effective supervision is the supervisor. Therefore, it seems desirable at this point to set forth a few basic considerations which tend to summarize the relationships between the characteristics of the supervisor and the level of supervisory activity established and maintained by the supervisor.

The tone for the whole supervisory process is set by the personality of the supervisor. Supervision is justified only to the extent that it results in improvement. In turn, improvement demands a positively oriented approach to a situation. Since the moods of people are often contagious or antagonizing, whether they be positive or negative, the outlook of the supervisor becomes doubly important in relationships with teaching personnel and other staff members. Creativeness and the constructive type of enthusiasm for improvement often are kindled first from a spark generated by some type of positive and hopeful reaction by the supervisor.

There is little chance that teachers can be affected posi-

tively in their efforts by a supervisor who possesses a gloomy disposition, and whose chief contacts with teachers are of the nature of petty complaints, unprofessional communications, and negative criticisms. On the other hand, the personal radiance and professional understanding of the supervisor can go quite far in rejuvenating the tired spirits of the discouraged teacher and set his eyes once more beyond the melee of trivia which momentarily besets him.

✓ *Effective supervisory procedures depend heavily on the personal attributes and resources of the supervisor.* Professional behavior quite often reflects personal characteristics and character. In addition, professional activity may be enhanced or limited by richness or paucity of resources possessed by the practitioner. This points up the absolute necessity for attention to personal attributes as they relate to selection, preparation, and employment of supervisory personnel. It is not enough to assume competence on the basis of intellectual power or impressive academic record. Supervisors must be persons who are, or are capable of becoming, highly skilled in their relations and interactions with other people. This in turn requires certain characteristics which must be initially possessed or developed before real supervisory competence can be achieved on the job.

✓ *Opinions which teachers hold concerning the supervisor affect the degree of acceptance of the supervisor's ideas and suggestions.* It is difficult, if not impossible, to consider a product without some consideration of the producer or person associated closely with that product. Many illustrations can be cited to show the manner in which esteem for a person influences the regard which others have for his efforts. It seems quite probable that most people have their automobiles serviced at particular service stations because of their liking for the manner, integrity, and courtesy of the operators rather than from any overwhelming conviction of the superiority of the specific products involved. The same might be said for many other situations in which people transact business from day to day. Certainly, people tend to show preference for doing business with those whom

they like as persons. Further, they tend to have confidence in products dispensed by persons for whom they have such liking and respect. These observations appear to have rather clear-cut implications for education, including supervision. Teachers will not be influenced positively by supervisors whom they will not accept as persons.

✓ *Working associates are affected as much by example as by precept; more by what is done than by what is said.* In the realm of professional activity, as in other phases of the educational process, persons have their behavior modified through imitation and association as well as through verbal expression and suggestion. For example, the supervisor or administrator who is highly autocratic in his approaches to members of the staff cannot expect to imbue his associates with the value of and necessity for democratic relationships in the classroom. Conversely, the supervisor who reflects proper concern for the ideas and personality of the individuals with whom he works is much more likely to engender respect for this type of behavior in others. In any case, it can be assumed that preaching one type of behavior and practicing the opposite type is usually unproductive in the realm of educational supervision.

✓ *Effective supervision is dependent upon social sensitivity.* Admirable personal qualities and character are not enough to insure the success of the supervisor. While personal attributes and skills are vital to such success, the most critical line of demarcation between success and failure in supervision lies at the point of human interaction and relationships. Supervision, being both diagnostic and remedial in character, requires the ability to sense the feelings of others and to discern the relationships between these feelings and the productiveness or potentialities of individuals. The simple tendency and ability to place oneself in the situation of another is an essential requisite for effective supervisory activity. Supervision cannot best be judged by what the supervisor does but rather by what he causes others to do. This essential quality, then, of human relations as they are involved in supervision lends great

importance to the social sensitivity and skills of supervisors.

✓ *Effective supervision requires professional competence of a particular nature.* Becoming a successful supervisor involves even more than potential personal and social skills. The supervisor's ultimate success also is highly dependent upon proficiency in the technical understanding and processes involved in teaching and learning. Basically, the successful supervisor must understand and be able to demonstrate the most fruitful forms of teaching methodology. This involves the translation of principles of teaching and learning into actual teaching performance as well as the ability to view teaching activity in terms of accepted principles and concepts. It further involves the application of known principles of child development, mental health, and psychology of learning to actual learning situations. All in all, the supervisor must be able to see and apply numerous facets of the teaching-learning situation in their proper relation to each other, the total educational process, and the character of the local staff and environment. ✓

The professional growth of members of a staff is related to the supervisor's own growth. Enthusiastic, creative, growing people inspire the desire for growth in those around them. The supervisor can never assume that he has reached a stage of professional omnipotence which no longer requires the search for new and better ideas and techniques. In fact, nothing can be so deadening to a supervisor, and indeed to those around him, as the assumption that he has acquired all the necessary answers for proficiency in his role as supervisor. Such a condition is little more than a well-worn rut which is certainly not conducive to improvement of anybody, including the supervisor himself.

Modern supervision is built on the assumption that working groups grow best together rather than in terms of one person's ideas being imposed upon those around him. This assumption implies that the supervisor is as willing

to accept ideas as to give them and to turn them into channels for his own professional improvement.

✓ *The alert supervisor has numerous opportunities for extending the scope and quality of his personal and professional resources.* Many opportunities for growth exist for the supervisor who is seeking means for his own improvement. Regular opportunities for advanced professional study offer at least one channel through which the supervisor may keep abreast of ideas in his field. Educational travel, professional workshops, and other such activities sponsored by institutions and organizations can contribute substantially to the upgrading of education through preparation and in-service stimulation of educational personnel. Some of the more specific approaches of this type are treated more fully in later sections of this chapter.

PERSONAL ATTRIBUTES OF THE SUPERVISOR

An individual with fine personal qualities may not necessarily be a successful supervisor, but it is extremely doubtful that one can become a very successful supervisor without first being an appealing person. Naturally, it is not easy to dissect personality into its essential components, but it is possible to point out a few of the personal characteristics which appear to be present in supervisors who enjoy unusual achievement in their work.

✓ SINCERITY

Sincerity is a virtue in any individual regardless of his vocation. It is, however, doubly important to the person whose work consists of continuous interaction with other people. Genuineness is always associated with quality and integrity; insincerity is considered to be a form of artificiality which people seem naturally to dislike. The ideas held by people may not be either popular or acceptable but they are often respected if apparently they arise out of sincere beliefs or an honest search for truth. True sin-

cerity, combined with a genuine interest in people, is a quality which is easily sensed by working associates in their day-to-day experiences with a supervisor. The existence of this quality of sincerity and its recognition do much to insure the kind of climate which is so important to the achievement of educational improvement through supervision.

EMPATHY ✓

Humaneness in human beings is primarily and initially dependent upon the process of empathy. Simply stated, empathy is the ability to project oneself into the situation of another to an extent sufficient to sense the feelings and attitudes of the latter. If it is assumed, as is generally done, that most behavior is caused, one cannot judge the behavior of a fellow or colleague without first viewing it in terms of motivating causes and attendant feelings.

The ability to sense realistically the feelings of others is quite vital to persons performing supervisory tasks. Teachers tend to be drawn toward the suggestions of supervisors who demonstrate a sincere feeling for their problems and an accurate notion of their reasons for reacting as they sometimes do. Conversely, teachers hurriedly reject even the more helpful overtures and suggestions of supervisors who seem to portray only a limited degree of common understanding. Supervisors should seek always to find and use all possible approaches which will reveal a thorough understanding of the teacher's role and a sympathetic understanding of the routine problems and the unpredictable crises which sometimes beset the life of the teacher. Once this feeling is firmly established, the supervisor is then in a position to involve teachers in activities designed to help them analyze, appraise, and ultimately to improve various facets of their teaching. Both classroom teachers and supervisors can profit from the habit of preceding any temptation to condemn the attitude or practice of another by the simple, self-directed

question, "If I were in that position, how would I react?"

OPENMINDEDNESS ✓

The attribute of openmindedness is not conceived to be, as a wag might suggest, a condition whereby the brain becomes a breezeway for passing ideas. It is conceived to be characterized by the willingness, or perhaps even the eagerness, to entertain new ideas including those in conflict with beliefs already possessed. Openmindedness does not demand, however, that one accept thoughtlessly every new or novel idea which presents itself; rather it requires one to be willing to examine such ideas in the hope of extending one's horizons of intellectual and professional resources.

In addition to simply possessing a tolerance for the undiscovered, the growing supervisor develops a questioning mind which actually searches for new and better ways of doing things. Nor should this search be confined only to highly authoritative or established sources; actually, much is to be learned from listening to the ideas of colleagues and other associates, particularly if such associates are encouraged to submit and share ideas which emerge from active professional imaginations. To listen well and to give each reasonable idea a chance to be validated are extremely useful approaches in the field of educational supervision.

INTELLECTUALITY ✓

The emphasis placed on functional human relations in the field of supervision may lead some to assume mistakenly that the essence of supervisory competence is comprised almost solely of a type of hearty sociability which minimizes the importance of intellectual power. Such an impression is quite erroneous. Actually, an essential requisite for supervision is a degree of intelligence sufficient to analyze forces, conditions, and practices in their relation-

ships to each other and to the over-all processes and ultimate goals of education. The capacity to learn from experience, to tap the various fields of human experience, and to think critically and reflectively is a mark of the educated supervisor. Such a supervisor is keenly aware of the importance of technical skills and professional techniques in education, but he is equally cognizant of the strength which is born of understanding of many fields of knowledge and the development of a set of sound theoretical bases upon which his practices rest and from which his growing professional competence is nourished.

OBJECTIVITY ✓

Since the supervisory process is so largely composed of judgmental, evaluative types of activity, it is essential that a supervisor be able to view the teaching-learning situation and all its component elements in their true perspective. This ability involves a sense of proportion and the absence of marked bias and prejudices. Nowhere is the scientific approach to problems and ideas more to be desired than in the realm of educational supervision. While the supervisor must be flexible in dealing with human problems and particular situations, it is vital that objectivity not be replaced by too heavy an emphasis on the emotional aspects of the moment. Objectivity not only promotes clarity of thinking but also tends to lend consistency to the supervisor's day-to-day activities.

CREATIVITY ✓

The process of supervision never lacks frontiers for the supervisor who has the imagination to recognize them and probe their possibilities. In education, as in other areas of human endeavor, there probably remains more to be known than is known. The unlimited and unexplored horizons of teaching methodology and instructional resources are very fertile areas for fruitful effort on the part of both supervisor and teacher if they have the educational

vision to sense possibilities inherent in the situation which surrounds them.

It is possible, of course, to become so comfortable with established ideas and practices that newer ones actually become disturbing. Such an attitude is deadening to a supervisor and may well serve also to numb the professional enthusiasm of teachers with whom he comes in contact. True creativity, then, is reflected in the free exercise of the inquiring mind and in developing attitudes which encourage the intellectual penetration of the walls which so often confine the techniques of the educational practitioner to the acceptable practice rather than the best possible practice. Important as it is to retain in the educational process the means of sifting out and perpetuating the valued elements of what is known and held to be worthwhile, it is sheerest folly to assume that educational processes and programs which remain staid and static can well meet the needs of a generation which is everywhere characterized by changes brought about by the imaginative responses of man to the possibilities of the world about him. Perhaps one of the great services to be rendered by an understanding leader in education is to work toward the end that no one becomes so satisfied with what he is doing that he loses the desire to seek a better way.

INSPIRATION ✓

It is often stated or implied that an efficient worker is a dedicated worker, or vice versa. This is another way of indicating the importance of a *feeling for the job* as well as a *knowledge of the job*. Effective production in any area, particularly in the realm of the social sciences, requires that producers see purpose in their efforts. In addition, they sense a real relationship between this purpose and the values and ideals they hold to be enduring. Such feelings expand the day-to-day activities of the educator far beyond the actual mechanics of teaching or supervision; they lend meaning and worthwhileness to tasks which might other-

wise take on a kind of repetitive drabness. Ideally, it is hoped that the supervisor may not only be an *inspired* person but also an *inspiring* one.

PROPORTION AND BALANCE ✓

Imbalance creates problems in most areas of human endeavor. Extreme views often are held by persons who have either a limited or distorted picture of a situation. The true happiness of an individual frequently rests heavily upon a proper balance between his resources and the demands which life imposes upon him. Even in the business world, the proportionate relationship of supply and demand determines, to a large degree, the stability and soundness of commercial activity and industrial production. The importance of education is such that its processes cannot be safely entrusted to a type of leadership which is marked more by whim and impulse than by reasoned judgments.

Supervisory personnel have a particular need for the ability to analyze and appraise educational procedures with saneness and in terms of the relative importance of the various factors involved. Supervisors must be persons who can rise above the exaggerations of the importance of minor conflicts and annoyances and keep themselves free from the restrictive entanglement with minutiae. It is equally important that they be able to assess the comparative importance of temporary activities and long-range ends. The ability to recognize, and perhaps concede, minor issues in order to gain major objectives is a vital asset to any educational leader. It is an ability worth developing.

RESPECT FOR PEOPLE ✓

One of the most frequent errors of educational analysts is the tendency to make direct comparisons between professions or between the educational process and the production of tangible goods. Education is a social enterprise in that it depends for its effectiveness on the stimula-

tion of human interaction. The quest for better school facilities, highly justifiable as it is, often may result, unfortunately, in the creation of an impression that education can be evaluated in terms of the mechanical and concrete devices provided. Important as good facilities are, they can never compare in importance with the human factors involved in the teaching-learning situation. Supervisors, like teachers, cannot work well with people and on behalf of them unless they first possess a basic respect for the persons involved.

Closely related to the recognition of the value of people is the matter of having faith in them. People tend to respond according to the expectations of those around them, especially those whom they respect and whose respect they desire to have in return. In other words, most people are inclined to behave at about the level at which they feel those who know them expect; more specifically, teachers tend to respond in rather marked accordance with the faith placed in them by supervisors or administrators. This principle also operates conversely. A worker hounded continuously by the recognition that his leaders or fellows consider him incompetent or unreliable is not likely to develop either the necessary habits or the constructive attitudes essential to success in his work. The simple tendency to believe in people has been found to be one of the most valuable assets of the educational supervisor in his efforts to stimulate desire for improvement and the subsequent effort necessary to bring it about.

PHILOSOPHY OF THE SUPERVISOR

Beliefs both generate and guide the subsequent actions of a person. The knowledge of what a person believes is a fairly adequate base for predicting how he will behave. The world is full of ideas, things, and people. Each person's life, and to some extent the successful pursuit of his work, is largely dependent upon the alternatives he chooses in relation to various components of his society and culture.

All deliberative actions emerge from the nature of a value held or an idea conceived to be worthy of activating. Nowhere is this relationship between values and action more concretely demonstrated than in the cases of educational leaders such as administrators and supervisors. What they believe is important is vital to the well-being of the boys and girls who are assumed to be the ultimate beneficiaries of their professional actions.

The philosophy of a supervisor is revealed rather clearly in his definition or notion of the major components of the educational process. At least three of these seem to merit fuller elaboration: the concept of children, the concept of education, and the concept of leadership.

CONCEPT OF CHILDREN

Children are usually considered to be the chief beneficiaries of the elementary school. It is for them that the school justifiably exists. It is the children for whom instructional programs presumably are designed. Yet, even in view of these assumptions, there appears to be all too little understanding among parents and educators as to the nature and development of children. Without adequate understanding along these lines, certain concepts of childhood seem to persist and, indirectly at least, to shape the kinds of programs provided for pupils in the schools.

Supervisors are in key positions to influence the concepts other people hold of children. This is with the provision, of course, that they themselves have a clear and sensible understanding of the matter. Aside from the basic understanding in this field which can come from professional study, supervisors are in the enviable position of having a child-study laboratory all around them since they work directly in schools populated by great numbers of children of all degrees of background, ability, and maturity. In spite of such opportunities, however, the clear indication is present in many schools that programs are based on inadequate notions of how children develop and how they

may be expected to behave. What are some of the apparent views held of children? A few illustrative examples may help answer this question.

Historically, children have often been considered miniature adults. The well-behaved child has been assumed to be one who behaves as much like an adult as possible. Parents and teachers frequently have taken great pride in children who "demonstrate maturity far beyond their years." This might be a justifiable source of pride except that it may mean that only a veneer of adult behavior has been developed over a base of childhood equipment and interests. This end, achieved under adult pressure, can lead to troublesome educational and social complications as efforts are made to provide learning experiences for such children.

Similarly, children sometimes have been thought of as puppets of adults. They have been expected to respond immediately to the touch of the manipulator, whether he be the parent or the teacher. No sensible person, of course, belittles proper efforts to develop in children a respect for those responsible for them. This is basic to good family life and profitable school life. It is, however, in direct violation to what is known of how individuals learn to become self-directive to assume that acceptable behavior is promoted best through dictatorial and rigid insistence on children responding to the manipulation and whims of adults.

Another indication of a fallacious concept of children is the tendency to classify them either as conformists or non-conformists. Occasionally, there have been expressed simultaneously ideas which both support and criticize unfavorably suspected trends which seem to force the actions of children into patterns of behavior which represent conformity to particular ideals. Between these two extreme concepts of child behavior fall varying definitions of what constitutes normal behavior and reactions on the part of children as a group. Some persons actually believe that it is the primary business of the home, school, and com-

munity to develop children in strict conformity with preconceived notions of what constitutes the good and successful life. Others quite understandably argue that the major concern of education, in all its forms, is to help persons develop the ability to do independent and creative thinking for themselves. The latter point of view implies that much of the progress of civilization has emerged from the efforts and courage of persons whose rugged individualism rejected very largely the idea of conformity. Certainly, there is value in bringing the force of established ideals and cherished heritage to bear upon the lives of children. This, admittedly, may tend to create a common acceptable pattern of social, spiritual, and moral standards which probably are highly desirable. This does not mean, however, that opportunities for new and individualized ways of behaving should not be encouraged or provided.

The concepts of children described above are not prevalent among more enlightened segments of the educational profession. There are, however, sufficient remnants of these notions still existing to suggest that supervisors be prepared to assist in the formulation of sound concepts of the nature of children. To do this, supervisory personnel must not only be aware of erroneous ideas of children held by teachers and parents but they, themselves, also must have a thorough knowledge of the actual nature of children as revealed by modern investigations into child development and behavior. For this reason, a few of the more pertinent characteristics of children are included here.

Children are *developing* individuals. The growth of children moves along a continuous line of physical, mental, social, and emotional development. Furthermore, these facets of growth are interrelated in such a manner that the development of children is largely a unified process. In view of these considerations, it may be assumed that any point of a child's life is a stage of development and represents a level of maturation rather than the achievement of maturity. It is highly important to persons working with the educational processes that they fully realize that chil-

dren of elementary-school age are passing through changing stages of development which are characteristic of the period between birth and adolescence. This characteristic of change itself presents a genuine challenge to persons responsible for the planning and designing of learning experiences for children.

Children are *responding* individuals. Reticence is not characteristic of normal children. They tend to react to people and to situations with considerable vigor and with noticeable specificity. Their likes and dislikes are often immediate and expressed with feeling. This tendency toward overt expressions of opinions and feelings, though often lacking in the degree of tact prized by adults, does emerge from a type of enthusiasm and candor which can be utilized constructively in the educational process. Teachers and supervisors can plan for children much more intelligently if they are fully aware of the implications of this responsiveness found in most pupils attending schools today.

Children are *exploring* individuals. Random trial and error are the means by which much early learning occurs in children. Though it is true that children have purposes of their own which usually motivate specific types of behavior, nevertheless, the natural curiosity of children and the tendency to explore are channels through which the child frequently acquires much of his understanding of the processes of the world about him. Adventure, personal and vicarious, is one of the earmarks of childhood and youth. This quest for the new and a zeal for the novel often serve as very productive channels for developing creativity on the part of the learners. Actually, children may prefer finding answers to being given answers when the process of discovery is revealed in a stimulating manner. This fact appears to have considerable significance for all persons who attempt to guide the development of children along positive lines.

Children are *enthusiastic* individuals. Exuberance is a natural quality in children who are experiencing normal growth. This exuberance finds expression in many ways.

Children tend to go beyond adult standards of behavior in many of their normal processes of living and learning. They seem inclined to run instead of walk, to yell instead of talk, and to be generally indifferent to noise which adults find quite distracting. Even though many children today, as members of modern families, may seem to have acquired a blasé attitude toward many things which might be expected to generate enthusiasm, they actually are rather excited about most things in which they have any interest at all. It is important that behavior controls exercised by adults, however desirable and necessary, not be such as to dull the natural enthusiasm of children for the things around them.

Children are *direct* in their relationships. Parents and teachers frequently are disturbed at the lack of tact demonstrated by children of elementary-school age. While it is reasonable to expect that common forms of courtesy and considerateness should begin to reveal themselves even during the early years of a child's life, it must be recognized that social finesse and tact are attributes which are not inherent in the child but must be learned. Children are often brutally honest. This characteristic occasionally may be interpreted erroneously as the deliberate desire to hurt others or to demonstrate disrespect.

Many other traits of elementary-school children could be pointed out here. The above seem to be sufficient, however, to illustrate the general nature of children of this age.

Equally important to persons who work with children is a knowledge of children's needs. Not all children may have identical needs in every respect, but certain needs seem common to all children if they are to grow normally and develop in an optimum manner. The recent development of the field of child study and development has revealed several areas of such needs, three of which are especially closely related to the educational development of children.

Children need basic security. Although this need is present to a degree in the lives of all people—children and

adults alike—it is especially essential to children since they have not had sufficient experience to cope with the troublesome emotional impact of insecurity on their lives. In a sense, children are paradoxical in this respect since they possess an impelling tendency to explore and seek adventure, yet depend heavily on the feeling of security which comes from having someone to whom they may turn for guidance, protection, and even direction. They seem to possess the unusual ability to sense the fact that they are loved or unloved and the greatest burden that can be placed on a child is the demonstrated knowledge that no one actually cares for him. The security of loving parents, a pleasant and orderly home, or a classroom that is wholesome and well-organized can do much to establish feeling of security in children and to dispel the doubt and gloom which sometimes creep into the imaginative minds of children.

Children need, and are stimulated by, frontiers of thought and activity. As indicated earlier, children are adventurous, curious, and prone to push their activities beyond the bounds of commonplace circumstances. Avenues for the positive activity of the creative imagination of children are a genuine boon to the developing pattern of intellectual curiosity which is usually considered highly desirable in growing boys and girls. Certainly, the world is full of things which intrigue the creative urge found in children and it is reasonable to expect that teachers, parents, and other educators should find suitable ways of utilizing these channels of educational acquisition.

Children need guidance. Actually, it is often assumed erroneously that children wish to be wholly independent creatures and that they naturally resent the regulation of their behavior by adults or by their peers. This seems not to be the case at all. Although children value the opportunity for self-direction in many of their activities, it is also true that they appreciate the guidance of persons in positions of authority, especially if this guidance, and even direction, tends to build feelings of security. They have

need for such stability and consistency in their lives, even though they may not recognize this need as such.

CONCEPT OF EDUCATION

Someone has suggested that it makes a great difference whether one conceives of a learner as the "flower" or as the "pot." There has been an historical tendency among many earlier educators and laymen to consider education as a product, as something which at some stage, is achieved. In recent interpretations, the idea of education as a process has been more prevalent. Certainly if the main task of the supervisor is directly related to improving the educational process, it is essential for him to have a clearly conceived concept of education. This will involve the formulation of sound concepts regarding such aspects of education as the following:

1. The purposes of education as to the nature and scope
2. The basic nature of the learning process
3. The organization of the classroom which is most consistent with democratic objectives and processes
4. The basic principles of teaching in terms of what is known about the experimental and associative nature of learning
5. The definition and scope of the curriculum
6. The necessity and means for adapting instruction to the individual's abilities
7. The relation of evaluation to individual and group considerations
8. The relative roles of the professional and the layman in the educational process.

CONCEPT OF LEADERSHIP

Leadership has been defined as the ability and readiness to inspire, guide, direct, and manage others. In modern supervisory service, much emphasis is placed on the inspiring and guiding functions of the supervisor. In any case, the supervisor's effectiveness is affected materially by the extent of directiveness he assumes is necessary for

exercising a leadership role. Many thoughtful educators feel that some type and degree of directive authority is essential to effective leadership. One needs to guard, of course, against the possibility of status leadership becoming unduly autocratic. Certainly, it is true that many teachers appreciate a leader who, though providing opportunity for shared responsibility, brings to the group a sense of direction and stability through his own willingness to assume proper responsibilities of leadership.

In the formulation of a defensible concept of leadership it is well for the supervisor to remember that leadership must continuously evaluate its means of sharing resources and problems and that leadership is related to:

1. The source of authority from which power emanates in a situation
2. The development of self-directiveness
3. The responsible exercise of freedom by members of a group
4. Cohesiveness of group effort
5. The development of group loyalty and morale
6. Projective imagination
7. A balance of individual and group effort
8. The discovery and utilization of special aptitudes, talents, and resources.

SUGGESTIONS FOR INCREASED UNDERSTANDING OF THE SUPERVISOR'S RESOURCES

1. Interview a supervisor who is considered to be an effective leader in a school situation. Try to determine the qualities he considers most valuable in the performance of his supervisory responsibilities.
2. Formulate a checklist of personal traits you consider most important to the success of the supervisor.
3. Compile a list of resources which might be used by a supervisor for his own professional growth.
4. Investigate some of the recent research investigations into the type of attributes of supervisors which are appreciated most by co-workers.

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Chapter 4

The Supervisor and Human Relations

The essence of modern supervision lies in the effect people have on each other as they work professionally together. Though the most direct of these relationships is that of the supervisor with his co-workers, many other kinds of relationships exist within the framework of the typical school situation. Effective supervision depends not only upon the technical proficiency of the supervisor but also on the extent to which he is able to work with others in the processes of testing and applying ideas. Indeed, without the development and maintenance of a workable level of professional relationships among the members of a staff, most of the accepted modern techniques of group problem-solving become fruitless.

There are no simple, concrete attributes of a supervisor which will guarantee for him the operation of effective human relations with his associates. There are characteristics and attitudes, however, without which such a person can hardly expect to exert any noteworthy educational leadership. It is the purpose of this chapter to set forth and analyze some of the types of relationships which are operative in the team approach to education and to suggest principles and approaches which have been found to be valuable to persons engaged in supervisory work.

BASIC CONSIDERATIONS OF SUPERVISORY RELATIONSHIPS

It is impossible to discuss concisely all of the ramifications of the educational process which involve attitudes and techniques related to working together in a wholesome and productive manner. Part of this difficulty arises from the fact that supervisory work is carried on by persons with differing titles and varying assigned responsibilities. For example, the typical director of elementary education, the elementary supervisor, and the consultant, though having their positions defined somewhat differently, have many common concerns. Therefore, it seems desirable to set forth a few basic, guiding considerations which might serve as general principles of operation for any person faced with the necessity of creating and maintaining optimum human relations with his co-workers.

Supervision involves people more than things. As educational processes have matured in the United States, specialized services have been developed and specialized personnel prepared for the purpose of assisting the teacher in doing his job more efficiently. Some of these services have been chiefly administrative in character; they are concerned largely with such matters as the control and regulation of time, space, and facilities. This has required careful attention to efficient organization and equitable use of resources, both human and material. Effective administration now is considered to be a vital factor in the efficient operation and continuous improvement of the school program.

Supervision as a service has developed with a slightly different emphasis from that of administrative service. While the process of supervision, of course, must involve school facilities and materials of instruction, its major emphasis is on people. It is concerned with improving the learning of the learner, the teaching of the teacher, and the understanding of the layman. Its scope includes a consideration of the potential contributions of many persons

and agencies, both within and beyond the normal boundaries of the instructional program of the school. Supervision as a process implies responsibility for improving what individuals do as well as creating the conditions for coordinating the individual efforts of people into a productive and unified group effort.

A process so dependent on people gets its strength from the interaction of these people. One of the primary purposes of supervision is to stimulate the individual efforts of learners and teachers. But the educational process involves much more than the individual efforts which it evokes. A very necessary consideration involves the type of methodology employed and the kinds of relationships established between learner and teacher, teacher and teacher, and teacher and supervisor. This is another way of saying that the behavior of any one of these participants in the school program may affect the efforts of all others in that program. This being the case, the effect of the technical processes of teaching and supervision will be no greater than the level and quality of the human relationships employed in the process.

Interaction, effective for the purposes of supervision, is not a process which comes automatically when individuals are grouped together, or when they are forced by circumstance to work at the same task. Working together efficiently and productively requires reasonable consensus of purpose, a sense of corporate concern, facile communication processes, and continuing evidence of the benefits which emerge from co-operative thinking and acting. (These factors of the interactive process will be treated in considerably more detail in later sections of this chapter.) It is sufficient at this point to emphasize that interaction is basic to constructive supervision and, as a process, must be developed, strengthened, and refined through opportunities for working together in ways that offer sensible practice in approaching problems co-operatively. The development of such skills of interaction comes from learning

to talk together, think together, plan together, and decide together.

✓ *Supervision is related to the productive utilization of the group process.* The recognition of the need for fruitful interaction will not, in itself, result in educational improvement. This recognition must be activated by the practice of sound principles of group process. A commitment to the group approach to problem-solving will produce few constructive results unless it is accompanied by the willingness and ability to work together harmoniously.

The first concern in group process is to establish a working climate in which each contributing member feels free ✓ to give expression to his views. This involves the right of each member of the group to be heard, within the limits of propriety, and to raise questions about the contributions of other members. This must be done, of course, in the spirit of intelligent inquiry and mutual respect if undue conflicts and personalized recriminations are to be avoided. To maintain such activities on a professional and mutually beneficial plane is one of the greater challenges to leadership in such a situation.

Wide participation of members of the staff in policy development and decision-making is important in utilizing the group process. Individual differences of opinion should be noted and encouraged but not necessarily dramatized. Such differences often provide for varying viewpoints which help materially in clarifying a matter under consideration.

✓ In effective group process, two-way communication must be recognized and guaranteed. Although much emphasis is placed on getting all members of a group to participate, it is equally important to set the conditions for careful listening on the part of members of the group. It is also essential to provide for the periodic recapitulation of ideas as the discussion or work of the group progresses. Other considerations related to the group process are more fully developed in the following section of this chapter.

Effective human relations in supervision depend more on co-ordination than on conformity. It is erroneous to assume that in order for people to work together profitably they must think alike. Some commonality of interest and purpose is, of course, desirable but it definitely is not the aim of educational leadership to promote conformity of thought as an end in itself. Relationships among members of a staff usually are better in a situation which permits, and even encourages, the exercise of professional individualism if it is prompted by constructive motives and accompanied by some evidence of value.

Co-ordination, as an administrative and supervisory process, represents a reasonable midpoint between the stifling condition of rigid conformity and the distracting anarchy of complete individualism. The implementation of policies and techniques which foster efficient co-ordination requires attention to two important considerations. First, it is necessary to create a climate in which people can differ without fear of having their status within the group affected. Second, there must be maintained a thread of common purpose or concern which can serve as the focal point around which ideas evolve and against which such ideas may be continuously evaluated as to their pertinence and usefulness.

Human relations are affected by administrative policies and procedures. Positive human relations are maintained most easily in an atmosphere of reasonable security. Administrative practices greatly affect these relations through the influence they exert on the morale of the school staff. Matters related to salary, working conditions, tenure, leaves, and methods of evaluating teaching performance all affect the quality of human relations which exists among school personnel.

The extent to which members of a staff are kept informed about developments in the school system and community is another vital factor in the maintenance of positive relations. If the means for disseminating such information is so casual that not all members of a staff have an oppor-

tunity to learn reliably of administrative plans or policies which may affect them, the situation becomes a fertile ground for the sowing of seeds of dissension.

Arbitrary decisions as to a change of assignment or responsibilities of a teacher without the benefit of prior consultation often have the effect of reducing the level of morale among teachers, thus producing a climate in which it is extremely difficult for effective relations to continue to exist.

Equitable personnel practices are essential to the maintenance of wholesome human relations in the school. Practices which obviously indicate the operation of discriminatory attitudes toward individual members of the school staff have an immediate, negative effect on the interrelations of staff members. Confidential agreements with teachers, which involve special concessions and privileges, often may contribute to the deterioration of the working climate by creating an atmosphere of professional jealousy and distrust. The above word of caution concerning discrimination should not be interpreted as an insistence on the necessity of treating all members of a staff in an identical manner. Certainly, the relationships of the administrator or supervisor with members of the staff should be determined on the basis of the needs and competencies of each and in terms of conditions surrounding a particular situation. The important thing is to remember that teachers, and others, should be dealt with as individuals but within a framework of equity with respect to the common interests and rights of the staff as a whole.

Human relations in supervision are affected by teacher education. Though much attention can be profitably given to creating the environmental conditions which are most conducive to effective human relations in the school, the fact remains that the most vital element in the establishment of a well-co-ordinated team of co-operative workers is the quality of the workers themselves. If high-quality young men and women are selected for admission to teacher-preparation courses, as appears to be increasingly

the case, a large step has been taken to assure reasonably good human relations in the schools which these people will ultimately help staff. In addition to the desirability of attracting highly intelligent persons for the teaching profession, it is essential for teacher-educating institutions, in their programs of preparation, to give adequate attention to the development of attitudes and skills which facilitate effective human relationships on the job. Even the manner in which courses are conducted at the college level may contribute to the development of proficiency in group work and co-operative problem-solving which will later be invaluable to the prospective teacher.

Preservice preparation of teachers is a vital contributing factor to their success in teaching; however, neither the personal nor professional competencies of teachers can be fully developed at the preservice level. Many aspects of the teaching task need to be developed along with, and in terms of, experience in the classroom. This accentuates the need for suitable in-service activities which are designed to provide opportunity for growth in individual understanding and skills and for expanding facility in group study and work.

The supervisor's own personality directly affects the level of human relations which can operate in a school situation. The interactive relations of a group seldom rise above the level of human relations demonstrated by the supervisor in his associations with individual members of the group. The personality of the supervisor not only sets the tone of the working atmosphere which prevails but also furnishes the best indicator of the type of leadership which he espouses. The supervisor whose disposition appears to be best characterized by an air of continual criticism and complaint is not likely to stimulate his associates to wholesome and constructive relationships as they seek to work together.

When a sincere interest in members of the educational team is obviously possessed by a supervisor, his associates tend to react favorably in their relations with the super-

visor and with each other. On the other hand, the highly egocentric person with an exaggerated opinion of himself and his own ideas can hardly be expected to lend encouragement to the creation of conditions which are ideal for productive, co-operative effort.

Consistency of attitude and action by the supervisor is extremely important to the effective maintenance of pleasant relations among members of the school staff. Insecurity invariably is aggravated further by a feeling of uncertainty among teachers which may arise from fluctuating and inconsistent behavior on the part of the supervisor. Teachers place a very high value on the quality of dependability in administrators and supervisors with whom they work. Such dependability consists of many components but certainly one of them is the characteristic of being reasonably predictable in performance from day to day.

LEVELS OF INTERACTIVE EFFECT

The term "personality," though often used, is not easily defined. In attempting to define such a term, one must first determine whether he wishes to emphasize biological, anthropological, or psychological components, or to consider varied types of components only in relation to a generalized composite notion. John A. Bartky defines personality as "all that a person is and all that he is likely to become." This is a useful definition in the field of supervision, even though for purposes of psychological study one might prefer to be more analytical in defining the term. As far as the relationships of personality to supervision is concerned, it seems permissible to think of personality chiefly as the effect a person has on another. This conforms somewhat to popular usage of the term in such situations as in which a person is heard to refer to another as "having a good personality" by which is meant that the second person has created a favorable effect on the first.

At any rate, in a process as interactive as the typical educational program of the school, the kinds of effect peo-

ple have on each other can build or destroy hope for maintaining optimum workable relationships. It seems profitable, therefore, to: (1) recognize that members of the school staff are affecting each other in some manner continuously; (2) identify the levels of effect which individuals have on each other; and (3) suggest means whereby persons might be encouraged to move from one level to another. These aspects of working relationships are discussed here in some detail but the reader will find several implications of these considerations in later chapters dealing with specific supervisory functions.

When two people come into contact with each other through the normal processes of educational interaction, there is a strong possibility that each is changed in some way by the experience. Certainly, each reacts to the other in some way. This reaction may be positive, negative, or largely neutral. Close observation of the reactions of individuals to each other reveals at least four levels of effect, any one of which may occur in a given situation. It also should be pointed out that persons do not always affect each other in the same way so that it must be assumed that the nature of effect felt by one person may not be a mutual one as far as the other person is concerned.

LEVEL OF REJECTION

Although first impressions are not always reliable indicators of subsequent appraisals which individuals may make of each other, there are instances in which two individuals seem to experience a "clash of personalities" from the very beginning of their mutual acquaintance. Though such a case is undoubtedly the exception, it is certainly true that one person may affect another adversely, either in terms of a particular meeting or conversation, or through the duration of a longer period of working or associating together. Extremely dominant characteristics often have the effect of repelling others. Conversation or manners which suggest condescension or superiority on the part of

a person tend to minimize the chances of his acceptance by others. The supervisor should study the characteristics which tend to foster acceptance by fellow workers and make them the basis for the continuous improvement of his own effectiveness in human relations.

LEVEL OF INDIFFERENCE

Frequently, one hears a person referred to as being a "colorless" individual. This merely means that such a person lacks attributes which stimulate favorable reactions by others. The daily associations of such persons with others are likely to be marked by no unusual change in any participating member. Such a person is usually not resented but he is not likely to gain much support for ideas nor to be able to exercise much leadership among his co-workers. It is quite deadening professionally to become a person who is easily ignored and toward whom associates develop an attitude of indifference.

LEVEL OF ACCEPTANCE

One of the basic psychological needs of an individual is to acquire and maintain status with respect to his peers. It is only natural, then, that teachers and supervisors desire to be accepted by their associates. They also desire to have their ideas receive favorable attention by others. Certain qualities seem to promote acceptance by others. Showing a sincere interest in those with whom we come into contact is basic to the creation of the conditions for acceptance. A reasonable degree of humility, genuineness, and graciousness is quite essential if one is to be accepted by his associates.

LEVEL OF ATTRACTION

There is a vast difference between being accepted by others and being attractive to others. Although a person who is attractive to others is usually one who is accepted

by them, the quality of attractiveness demands attributes somewhat beyond those ordinarily associated with acceptance. There are a few fortunate people who, by virtue of innate characteristics or developed manners and skills, make an unusually forceful impression on others. This impression, of course, may be either positive or negative, but in connection with supervision, it is assumed that the concern is mainly with the matter of creating favorable effects on others. While this demands the basic qualities of honesty, courtesy, and consideration necessary for most types of social or professional acceptance, it also is found that persons who attract others usually demonstrate some special quality or unusual cleverness. In other words, to be able to exert a highly positive effect on others, one must have the ability to establish confidence and respect and to generate unusual interest as well.

Inherent characteristics may tend, of course, to set certain limits on the extent to which any given person may become wholly pleasing and effective in his professional relationships with others. It is possible, however, to develop through studied practice some of the attributes so necessary to wholesome relationships. By doing so, a supervisor, or any other professional person, may be able to move gradually from one stage of acceptance to a higher level. Some simple suggestions follow:

1. Be natural. Nothing will destroy one's effect with others more quickly than artificiality or phoniness.
2. Be modest but not retiring. Extreme expressions of modesty or humility usually reveal feelings other than those of humility.
3. Be human. An air of omnipotence or superiority is almost sure to affect others adversely.
4. Be courteous. Nothing is appreciated more than ordinary human graciousness and consideration.
5. Be helpful but not solicitous. Unsolicited advice is bitter medicine and does not ordinarily promote good relations.
6. Be interesting. In conversations and conferences, move sometimes beyond the discussion of matters which are threadbare and uninteresting.

7. Avoid information which is primarily gossip. Repeating such information tends to make others increasingly cautious about providing confidential information of any kind.
8. Practice the Golden Rule.

REQUISITES FOR EFFECTIVE HUMAN RELATIONS

Each school situation has a certain uniqueness of its own which makes it difficult to suggest a pattern of past conditions which will insure optimum teamwork on the part of staff members. Sufficient work has been done in the area of human relations and personnel work, however, to give some rather reliable clues to what constitutes an optimum environment for effective working relationships in most situations. A discussion of some of these requisites follows.

COMMONALITY OF PURPOSE AND INTEREST

People tend to work more vigorously when they see purpose in what they are doing, and they tend to work together more co-operatively when they share purposes and interests. The relationship between "caring" and "sharing" is a basic element of modern supervision. Regardless of whether they share a goal or a crisis, teachers tend to work together more willingly through the effects of such sharing. If common purposes are to be established for a group such as the instructional staff of a school, there must be frequent and continuous opportunities for exploratory discussion and group planning. Consensus can never be established by some mysterious type of administrative weighing and "averaging" of individual viewpoints; such consensus will emerge most readily from the give-and-take of group discussion and common involvement in problems in which staff members see purpose.

People tend to accept and promote those things to which they attach value. If a staff of teachers actually can see more benefits accruing to them from co-operative endeavor than from individualized efforts, they quite naturally will

indicate a willingness to participate in group work. If the values emerging from the group approach are to become evident to participating members, it is necessary to provide for periodic, or even continuous evaluation of the outcomes of working together. It is usually easy to cite occasional instances which reflect progress toward the alleviation of existing problems or which indicate growth in the ability to work together on matters of common concern.

MEANS FOR COMMUNICATING IDEAS

People must be able to talk together before they can be expected to think together. Such communication requires understanding as well as suitable terminology. It is quite futile to hope for the effective transmission of ideas from one person to another unless the second person has had some prior experience with the concepts involved in the communication. If the ideas produced by one person, either verbally or in writing, are to carry meaning to another person who will receive the message, there must first be established the necessary common denominators of experience to insure that the message received is that which was transmitted. This implies the serious need for preliminary discussion of problems which arise in the school before members of the staff can think intelligently together about a solution or plan.

For the sake of emphasis, perhaps it should be pointed out here that communication has two major functions in the educational process. The first is related only to the efficient transmission of information needed by staff members in the performance of their jobs. As a rule, this type of communication is employed in connection with administrative routines or plans. For this type of communication, it is usually wasteful to assemble staff members together in groups, particularly if the matters under consideration do not affect all members of the staff. Such communication can be ordinarily accomplished more efficiently through written communications, bulletins, or announcements.

A second type of communication is that which is essential to the sharing and pooling of ideas and opinions as prerequisite activity to intelligent decision-making. When sharing of ideas is the goal, it is essential to arrange for group situations which facilitate sharing and pooling of resources.

PROVISIONS FOR STAFF SECURITY

Comfortable and secure people are generally more effective producers. Tensions and inhibitions tend to affect the productivity of workers adversely. Therefore, it is generally recognized among personnel workers that efforts to maintain a feeling of security among working associates often result in concrete dividends of increasingly fruitful performance.

Many factors are involved in the establishment and maintenance of a feeling of security by members of a staff. The manner and approach of the supervisor, the permissiveness or restriction of the situation, and the history of the situation in which a teacher finds himself all are factors which affect the security of teachers on the job. It is particularly important for beginning teachers to have their efforts recognized since their very newness to the situation may sometimes contribute to feelings of anxiety and insecurity. Through friendly gestures or helpful professional guidance, the supervisor may make a substantial contribution to the morale of such teachers.

Attention to matters of comfort in the lives of teachers is an evidence of concern which most teachers readily sense. Uncomfortable teachers do not usually perform as well as those who feel comfortable in their assignments. Physical, social, and emotional factors all may influence the attitude of a teacher toward his supervisor, his associates, and his job. The physical setting in which staff meetings are held is a simple but important consideration. Hard chairs and uncomfortably crowded quarters certainly are not conducive to either high morale or thoughtful study and discussion. Similarly, the social and emotional atmosphere which per-

vades the situation may be a vital factor in determining whether or not group sessions are profitable or a waste of time.

Suspicion and distrust are corrosive in their effects on human relations. An atmosphere of mutual trust is almost essential to effective human relations. Petty jealousies are fostered when members of the staff do not fully trust each other, and working relations are seriously disrupted when such distrust prompts a search for hidden motives behind each suggestion made by participating members of the staff.

The supervisor himself may well help develop an atmosphere of mutual trust by dealing honestly with his associates. The tendency to rush pet proposals through the processes of discussion toward a quick decision may have a negative effect on teachers since they may interpret such action as an indication of vested interests or questionable motives. Dealing openly and honestly with matters of staff policy will usually help to establish a feeling of mutual concern and respect.

An individual must trust himself before he is willing to trust others. Similarly, a person must have self-respect before he can fully appreciate the importance of respecting others. This observation carries the implied need for each staff member, however individual in character, to have an opportunity to make contributions to the group which will enhance his own self-respect and will give him status with his peers. The supervisor, by manner and deed, can do a great deal to insure this kind of individual opportunity in the school effort.

MEANS FOR DECISION-MAKING

The manner in which decisions are made and policies developed has a very direct bearing on professional relationships in the school. If teachers have a voice in matters affecting them, they are more likely to accept decisions and to work wholeheartedly for the effective implementation of these decisions. Not only is it important for teachers to be given a voice in policy-making, but it is also essential to

good relations that *all* teachers have such an opportunity to participate in policy-development. When policy-making appears to be vested in an unofficial inner circle of teachers, morale sometimes suffers as a result.

PLANS FOR ADMINISTRATIVE MECHANICS

Organizational routines of a school may improve or destroy the working relationships of the staff. The nature of faculty meetings, for example, may promote or deter effective relations. The manner in which the agenda is determined, the processes utilized during such meetings, and the degree of rigidity of the environmental surroundings all affect the quality of relationships which will characterize a faculty meeting.

Administrators and supervisors should temper efficiency with humaneness in developing routine procedures for intra-school communication and in assigning members of the staff to particular tasks. Consulting teachers before making changes in their assignments is an act of courtesy which affects relationships favorably. Avoidance of unusual interruption of the planned activities of a classroom group is another way administrators and supervisors may prevent unfavorable attitudes on the part of teachers toward the leadership of the school. Even in individual conferences with teachers, careful attention should be given to the physical and emotional surroundings if relationships are to be kept on a pleasant and professional plane.

CONCERN FOR ETHICS

Underlying all effective human relations is a sense of moral justice and a concern for ethical considerations. Without basic ideals, individuals and groups appear to have difficulty surviving the fluctuating and threatening circumstances that arise from day to day in most types of group endeavor. Both an individual philosophy of personal ethics and adherence to the established ethics of the profession are needed to guide

and stabilize the affairs of people if they are to be expected to work together harmoniously.

GROUP AND INDIVIDUAL PROCESSES IN SUPERVISION

A group is considerably more than the sum of the individuals who comprise it. A group, by its very nature, takes on attributes not possessed by any individual member of it. Likewise, individuals are changed by their membership in a group. The theory of the whole being greater than the sum of its parts was never more definitely exemplified than in connection with the group process in education.

Since a group takes on characteristics of its own not necessarily possessed by its individual members, its effective utilization requires certain types of professional relationships which are not necessarily identical with those present in person-to-person contacts. The following paragraphs will indicate some of the considerations which seem basic in each case.

GROUP PROCESSES

In an earlier part of this chapter some of the essential elements of effective group process were cited. It may be helpful, however, to state additional operational considerations which underlie successful group process.

1. Effectiveness in group process is learned through practice in the interchange of ideas. People do not have the capacity, automatically and inherently, for working effectively together. The ability is developed through opportunities for working together.
2. Potentially, each member of a staff has a contribution to make to the welfare of the total group. Although some teachers may possess dispositions which try the patience of the supervisor, such teachers often have their morale boosted by the opportunity to contribute to the work of the group in any way they may be able to do so.
3. Group participation almost demands regular meetings of the members of a staff. Infrequent meetings for the purpose of

dealing with emergencies do not satisfy the need for regular and continuous staff interactions.

4. Although group participation is vitalized by the presence of purposes recognized and accepted by the group, the supervisory leader usually finds it necessary and desirable to furnish much of the impetus for initiatory activities of the group.
5. The supervisor should guard against the attempt to operate above the level of group understanding or in advance of the pace of group thinking. Impatience in this regard often destroys the possibility for some of the more favorable outcomes of group work.
6. The supervisor frequently must protect the group from the negative effects of disruptive influences within the group. Members who talk too much, or who are unduly contentious about minor details, often must be kept from bringing the group to the point of disgust or utter chaos.

In addition to these operational considerations the steps in the process of working together on a project or area of study are worthy of mention. The general steps in the group undertaking are set forth rather clearly by Spears¹ in his discussion of this aspect of supervision:

1. Provide sufficient time for the work, but hold the undertaking within time limits that will assure sufficient drive on the part of the participants. In other words, avoid two extremes. One of these is the drain upon teacher time and energy that comes when a supervisor or principal has his mind so much on a finished product that he drives the group to complete the job. The other is the boredom and frustration that come with an undertaking that seems to have no specific goal or deadline.
2. Determine as early as possible the exact scope of the undertaking. If it is in the area of instruction, delineate the specific phase of the program that is to be treated. This avoids losing the group in the ramifications of education.
3. Secure the proper atmosphere for good work, to enable all group members to give their best and to secure their share of satisfactions.
4. Provide an accounting of progress from time to time, so that the work can be redirected as needed to assure efficiency of effort and promise of accomplishment.
5. Supply the amount of before-the-group leadership that is necessary

¹ Harold Spear, *Improving the Supervision of Instruction* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953), pp. 107-108.

to command confidence in the undertaking and in the leadership, but draw back from the limelight to the extent that each member may make his greatest contribution and develop to the fullest through the work.

6. Provide the materials and resources needed in the undertaking, rather than permitting loss of teacher time in fumbling around for them.
7. Help to establish proper understanding of relationships of the undertaking to other phases of the school program that may be out of direct observation or knowledge of the group.
8. Arrive at decisions in a democratic manner, after sufficient time and attention have been given to the various possibilities. The town meeting way of hammering out an agreement takes a lot of time, but it is worth it.

INDIVIDUAL RELATIONSHIPS

Much of the process of supervision is concerned with person-to-person relationships between the supervisor and the teacher. These relationships occur most typically in connection with classroom visitation, individual conferences, and casual interviews and conversations. Wherever and under whatever conditions these contacts occur, it is well for the supervisor to remember certain simple rules of human relations:

1. Be pleasant.
2. Show a sincere interest in the teacher and what he is doing.
3. Give the teacher credit for being intelligent about the matter under consideration.
4. Cite the more favorable aspects of the situation before calling attention to troublesome matters.
5. Avoid an air of condescension.
6. Demonstrate a sense of fairness.
7. Leave the teacher in a hopeful frame of mind.
8. Help the teacher discover alternative channels of activity for the future.

SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVING UNDERSTANDING OF HUMAN RELATIONS IN SUPERVISION

1. Think of the persons who, during your lifetime, have made the greatest positive impression on you. Try to analyze the

qualities which they possessed which brought acceptance from others.

2. Find out all you can about the "brainstorming" technique as a process of productive group interaction. What are the factors which make it a profitable approach to creativity in problem-solving?
3. Interview some person engaged directly in public relations work to see if you can discover some of the most vital applied principles of human relations in this field of activity.
4. View the supervisory film on "Let's Be Human" which should be available from audio-visual distribution centers.
5. Through dramatization, try to demonstrate an effective interview.

SELECTED REFERENCES

- ADAMS, HAROLD P., and DICKEY, FRANK G. *Basic Principles of Supervision*. New York: American Book Company, 1953. Chapter 3 emphasizes the leadership role of the supervisor in relation to group morale.
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- BROWNELL, CLIFFORD, et al. *Public Relations in Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1955. Chapters 1-5 contain helpful material concerning the various relationships in the school and community. Definite suggestions are given for creating favorable relationships.
- HICKS, HANNE J. *Administrative Leadership in the Elementary School*. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1956. Professional relationships in the school are discussed in Chapter 16. Contains a list of guiding principles and definite suggestions for maintaining good relationships in the school.
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Part III

THE FUNCTIONS OF SUPERVISION

Chapter 5

Diagnostic Function of Supervision

* Some form of diagnostic analysis is almost always prerequisite to improvement. A person would have little faith in a physician who insisted on prescribing the remedy for an illness without a prior diagnosis of the nature of the illness. Similarly, it is wasteful and unscientific to hope for improvement in the educational process without a continuing analysis of the practices and conditions which constitute and determine the nature of the process.

The systematic analysis of the educational process, with a view to improvement, justifiably may be considered one of the primary obligations of supervision. Presumably both the general perspective and the technical competence of the supervisor make him the person on whom rests considerable responsibility for initiating and coordinating the continuous study of existing educational practices. This responsibility, of course, is twofold. In the first place, the supervisor can and should contribute directly to the task of improving the school program through careful analysis and appraisal, though much of the supervisor's contribution in this respect will come through indirect approaches and means. This is not a sole responsibility of the supervisor. In the second place, programs for genuine improvement usually emerge from groups who have learned, under intelligent leadership, that the responsibility for continuous study of the curriculum

and methodology of the school is a corporate one. Such attitudes are encouraged by supervisors who have been successful in developing a spirit of mutual understanding with and within the staff.

It is the purpose of the succeeding sections of this chapter to emphasize some of the basic considerations underlying program analysis, to indicate briefly some of the types of diagnosis involved, and to call attention to some of the more useful instruments for meeting this aspect of supervisory responsibility.

BASIC PRINCIPLES IN EDUCATIONAL DIAGNOSIS

Educational diagnosis involves the study of human beings and their behavior. Because there are many variables present in educational situations, a true diagnosis is difficult to come by. This difficulty should not, however, prevent thoughtful educators from continuing their efforts to study and improve all important aspects of the educational process as it operates through the programs of elementary schools. In this continuing attempt, it may be helpful to set forth a few basic principles to serve as a guide to those who are concerned with the necessity for careful study and analysis of the school program.

Diagnosis and evaluation precede improvement. In a general sense, the activities of individuals and groups are determined largely by past experience. The experiences of the past and present which seem to produce the rewards we value may serve as a basis for determining the activities we desire to perpetuate; similarly, the mistakes of the past can often be utilized profitably in making decisions as to what can best be done in the future. In a sense, this process of viewing the past and present in terms of projected ideas and plans is a form of diagnostic analysis.

Improvement is not usually achieved through sudden unexplainable revelations or insights. It is usually the result of careful prior study of all important aspects of the situation as it exists, followed by an appraisal of its strengths and

weaknesses viewed in relation to the basic values to be nurtured by the process involved. The necessity for systematic study, analysis, and evaluation as prerequisite to improvement is just as marked in education as in any other form of human endeavor.

Diagnosis precedes evaluation. It was stated above that diagnosis and evaluation precede improvement. The order in which these processes occur, however, is vitally important. Granted, of course, that diagnosis and evaluation are not mutually exclusive either by nature or in the techniques involved in each process, it is essential to recognize that evaluation is both synthetic and analytic in its functions. It is synthetic in nature in that it must always view the various components of the educational situation in terms of the total process and the major purposes to be achieved. On the other hand, it is analytical in that it must examine the various elements of the situation in order to discover conditions and practices which should be encouraged, modified, or eliminated. Therefore, before a person can determine the adequacy of a program, he must first take an analytical look at conditions, outcomes, and processes in terms of original objectives. This necessitates provisions for careful study of the school program prior to generalized evaluations of it. In this type of study, the supervisor can demonstrate the real value of leadership in action as he attempts to create the attitudes and conditions which encourage and promote the scientific approach to program improvement.

Diagnosis involves the examination of purposes. Viewed superficially, educational analysis may seem to be only concerned with the examination of professional activities and the environmental conditions which surround the functioning of the educational operation. Actually, however, the nature and appropriateness of various activities cannot be examined sensibly except in their relation to the purposes to be achieved through the program. Methodology and organization take on meaning and value only in terms of their consistency with objectives to be realized. Therefore, throughout all phases of program improvement, supervisors

and teachers must remain aware of major purposes for which the program exists.

Diagnosis involves an analysis of the educational environment. It is trite to suggest that not all learning is derived from consciously designed teaching plans and techniques. Much learning appears to be a process of the intellectual and emotional absorption of that which surrounds the learner and comprises his world. The educational environment is quite as essential to desirable education as the technical level of teaching methodology employed. The competent teacher will give marked attention to the importance of the environment and will incorporate into his teaching performance the full utilization of environmental assets and resources.

Since there is such a direct relationship between the quality of the learning experience and the richness and suitability of the educational environment, no analysis of the educational process can be complete without proper consideration of the surroundings and resources which encompass the teaching-learning situation. It is, therefore, one of the obligations of supervision to help teachers become aware of the educative effect of the environment, and to assist in providing resources which directly contribute to the richness of that environment for learners and teachers.

Diagnosis involves an analysis of teaching methodology. Most thoughtful educators will agree that the teacher is the basic key to the level of educational experience which is provided for children in the classroom. The only justification for teaching is that it expedites and improves the rate and quality of learning; therefore, the way or ways a teacher teaches becomes quite important. The method of teaching is so vital to the attitudes developed and the achievement realized in the classroom that no adequate analysis of the teaching-learning situation can ignore it. Instead, the performance of the teacher probably constitutes the most effective clue to the over-all quality and results of the experiences provided within any given classroom.

Nowhere in the total program of the school is the role of the supervisor more vital than in relationship to the study

and improvement of teaching. Such improvement cannot be attained through the direct imposition of the supervisor's ideas on teachers. One of the greatest contributions of the supervisor in this respect lies in the development of a consciousness in teachers of the desirability of continuously examining the results of their teaching with a view toward identifying possibilities for improvement.

Diagnosis involves a consideration of teaching materials. Most teaching and learning is based on the communication of ideas or the development of skills. At the elementary-school level the effectiveness of the educational process is influenced greatly by the nature and suitability of the media for communication. Teachers must recognize that young and immature learners depend heavily upon direct experience as a means for acquiring ideas, gaining understanding, or developing skills. This recognition logically leads to the desire to provide instructional materials which are appropriate for children in terms of both nature and difficulty.

Teachers justifiably may look to the supervisor for assistance in selecting and locating instructional resources which can enrich the quality of teaching and enhance the results of learning. The alert supervisor will find many ways of meeting this need from day to day. His knowledge of community resources and his acquaintance with available commercial materials are necessary prerequisites for doing an adequate job of assisting teachers in this respect.

The study of the teaching-learning situation, to be comprehensive at all, must include a survey and analysis of educational materials and facilities available to teachers and learners. Even the very ingenious teacher can improve his effectiveness through the acquisition and utilization of appropriate instructional materials.

Diagnosis involves the analysis of educational organization. If a person is committed to a belief in the organismic nature of the learning process, he necessarily is interested in the total structure of the educational effort as it affects learning. In view of generally accepted ideas of unity and integration as important characteristics of the learning process,

it is not enough to consider only the elements in a teaching-learning situation to determine the nature and quality of the situation. It is also necessary to consider how these elements are blended and unified into an effective, integrative process. This, in turn, emphasizes the importance of the manner in which learning experiences are organized in the classroom or within the total program of the school or school system.

While most thoughtful educators would not insist on any particular type of classroom organization as being the sole or ultimate way of bringing unity and meaning into the effort, most of them would insist that there is a very important relationship between classroom organization and effective teaching. Therefore, when an individual is faced with the responsibility of studying the effectiveness of teaching and learning in a school, he must give proper attention to organization as a vital aspect of the total process.

Diagnosis involves the study of human relations. Teaching is basically a personalized process. Lacking favorable interrelationships between teacher and learner, the technical procedures employed in teaching may be almost completely fruitless. Only the most limited evaluation of a teaching-learning situation can result from excluding human relations from the list of factors which make up the classroom operation. Attitudes and relations quite obviously influence the effects which teachers and learners have on each other. These effects, in turn, limit or enhance the effectiveness of the teacher's activity as he attempts to promote learning. By example and by all other constructive means, the supervisor should encourage the development of positive relations in the school.

Diagnosis must be basically concerned with outcomes. Schools exist for a definite purpose. Teachers teach to achieve purposes. Learners learn more effectively when they see purpose in their activities. Underlying all educational effort is the assumption that the program of the school will produce certain results or outcomes. These results, of course, parallel closely the aims which direct the efforts of those who plan and operate the school program.

It is difficult to see how any comprehensive study of the school program can be made without due attention being given to the outcomes which emerge from it. Some of these outcomes are susceptible to measurement while others, though often quite apparent, must be determined and analyzed by more subjective means. At any rate, the process of helping a school staff examine the outcomes of its efforts is one of the primary responsibilities of the supervisor.

DIMENSIONS OF EDUCATIONAL ANALYSIS

Educational analysis is not a sharply defined process. It is subject to the dimensions of time and scope. Just as both the medical history and the current symptoms of the patient are essential to the diagnosis performed by the physician, both vertical and horizontal aspects of education must be considered by those who engage in educational study and diagnosis. Furthermore, variance among the components of the teaching-learning situation is so marked that approaches to educational diagnosis must also vary from time to time. Perhaps it is desirable at this point to identify and emphasize at least two dimensions of educational diagnosis which seem unusually important to a full understanding of the scope of educational analysis.

DIMENSION OF TIME

The process and outcomes of education at any particular time are largely determined and highly influenced by two forces. The first of these is the force of tradition and convention; the second is the force of current pressures and conditions. Each of these is considered briefly at this point in order to emphasize the importance of breadth and perspective as essential attributes of educational study.

Each current segment of educational effort, whether by learner, teacher, or supervisor, exists at some point on the scale of educational development of an individual, group, or nation. The nature of educational practice cannot be analyzed properly, nor its results appraised soundly, without

some regard for the sequential context from which the practice is viewed and of which it is a part. This is to insist that effectual study and analysis of educational programs must take into account the *experiences of the past and the projected hopes of the future.*

The importance of historical perspective is evident both in dealing with the analysis of learning patterns of individuals and in examining the major elements of an educational situation. For example, any attempt at curriculum study in a school or school system must take into account the careful study of past experiences and current patterns of endeavor. The supervisor or administrator who attempts to introduce educational innovation into the program of a school system without prior consideration of the history of the system runs the risk of engaging in futile effort.

Careful study of educational programs and facilities demands that a systematic investigation be made of the current conditions surrounding the situation. These sociological factors range from such matters as socioeconomic status of the school population to the determination of the availability and extent of community resources.

Again, the principle of sociological perspective can be aptly applied at all levels, and in terms of all types, of educational diagnoses. When one expects to analyze the difficulties being experienced by a learner, he must make his analyses and judgments in terms of prevailing conditions and surrounding factors. Similarly, the process of appraising the adequacy of a program of instruction in one or more of the curricular areas must include attention to the operational context within which the program has existed.

Teachers often are bound so closely to the classroom situation that they are prone to consider most educational matters in the context of their own limited classroom situations. The competent supervisor can often help teachers view their problems and consider possibilities in terms of a much broader perspective. This is essential to good teaching and to professional growth of teachers. Community study has

come to be considered almost as a prerequisite to resourceful teaching since such exploration often helps teachers discover means for enriching both their personal lives and their teaching. Leadership on the part of the supervisor is essential to the full-scale recognition by teachers of the possibilities inherent in the environment in which the school is located.

DIMENSION OF SCOPE

The process of educational analysis includes many factors which are quantitative and concrete in nature. It is only natural that these facets of analysis, being more tangible than others, should receive much attention from administrators and supervisors. Quite obviously, such factors as the size of the school enrollment, the adequacy of the school plant, the amount of supplies available, the range and central tendency of test results, and the amount of preparation possessed by teachers are all sufficiently important to the school program to demand careful attention. It is easily understandable, then, that educational leaders increasingly have sought all available instruments which would be helpful in surveying and evaluating the quantitative conditions which prevail in connection with the school program.

Careful attention to the tangible elements of the school program certainly can be justified as one of the responsibilities of educational leadership in the elementary school. It is possible, however, for an undue emphasis on the quantitative and material aspects of the program to tend to blind such leaders to the necessity for maintaining a sensible balance in their views about educational matters. For example, it is highly important that speed not be confused with progress, nor size with importance.

The analysis of the quantitative aspects of the school program is relatively simple compared with the appraisal of certain other facets of education. More and more, educators have the benefits of measuring devices in the field of psychometrics. Although many of these are designed to determine

achievement or status, many also are useful for diagnostic purposes as well and thus aid materially in the process of study of existing school programs and procedures.

It is relatively simple to measure the distance around a man's head but it is infinitely more difficult to measure or analyze the working of a man's mind. In a similar manner, educators do not encounter great obstacles in examining the tangible aspects of the school program but do find the process of qualitative analysis considerably more difficult. The frustrations of qualitative analysis frequently are experienced in connection with curriculum study, the evaluation of teaching competence, and even in determining the effectiveness of various approaches to evaluation itself.

Describing the beauty of a flower is much more than determining the length of its stem, the shape of its leaves, and the diameter of its blossom. Actually these processes do little to define the chief qualities of the flower. Similarly, it is impossible to determine fully the nature and effectiveness of a teaching-learning situation, or an educational program simply by investigating and measuring certain components of the situation. Such measurement is desirable, but such a concept of analysis is necessarily limited as the basis for generalized judgments.

The study of teaching competence and methodology is difficult for two reasons. First, much of the teaching process involves qualitative facets of personality and process. Many aspects of teaching do not lend themselves to ordinary instruments of analysis and appraisal. Second, the results of teaching usually cannot be measured, or even identified, immediately. Education is such a long-range, developmental process that its outcomes often emerge long after the acts which produced them have been forgotten.

AREAS OF EDUCATIONAL STUDY

The evaluation of the teaching-learning situation as exemplified through the school program requires the prior study of certain major facets of the total process. Admit-

tedly, these are not mutually exclusive, but it does seem desirable, nevertheless, for the sake of emphasis, to consider them integral entities of the total program. They are: (1) the study of the educational process, (2) the study of surrounding conditions and influences which affect the process and the product, and (3) the study of the educational product. Some of the ramifications of each of these will be considered here.

STUDY OF THE EDUCATIONAL PROCESS

It is assumed that teaching will bring about improved learning through whatever processes it employs. Obviously, some of the techniques of teaching, as is true of other human endeavors and skills, must be superior to others as instruments of achieving educational goals. The recognition of this fact prompts the continuous search for better methods of teaching. This search is complicated, of course, by the fact that the elements which constitute the total teaching act are so numerous and so variable in nature. It is possible, however, to identify a few of these which seem so very important that they merit special study and consideration. Therefore, any worthwhile attempt to study the school program necessarily must take into account (1) the study of the curriculum, (2) the study of teaching practice, and (3) the study of the activities of learners.

The Curriculum. The study of the curriculum is a vital part of the analysis of any school program. The curriculum of the school is the basic determinant of the extent and quality of the learning experiences which the school offers. Defined as the composite pattern of learning experiences for which the school assumes responsibility, the curriculum obviously sets the boundaries and establishes the nature of most professional effort expended in its operation.

Modern professional literature is replete with observations and opinions regarding factors, historical and otherwise, which have stimulated the continuous study and revision of the curriculum in this country. Among the reasons advanced

for justifying so much effort in this direction are the following:

1. A changing society creates new demands upon its citizenry. In turn, this necessitates the development of a curriculum that will be geared to producing the proficiencies needed.
2. The curriculum needs to be examined continuously in relation to the contributions of agencies other than the school which contribute to the education of the learner.
3. *The curriculum should be subjected frequently to a comparison with research findings in fields which are related to the education of children and youth.*
4. The curriculum should be studied sufficiently thoroughly and continuously so that answers may be provided to the questions raised by critics of education.
5. The curriculum should be subjected continuously to the benefits of the experimental approach which is considered to be typical of the American way of life.

At least three aspects of the curriculum are the direct concern of the supervisor and any other person who is responsible for, or interested in, educational improvement: (1) the content of the curriculum, (2) the sequence of the learning experiences provided, and (3) the organization of learning experiences as they are provided for children in the schools.

The number of things which might profitably be learned by a person is infinite. The universe is so full of truths to be discovered, understandings to be gained, and areas to be explored that no person could expect to pursue any major proportion of these possibilities in the course of a lifetime, and certainly not within the confines of the scope of the typical school program. Therefore, selection of learning experiences becomes an integral responsibility of all who determine the nature of curricula.

In studying the content of the curriculum which is in operation in a particular school system, it is necessary to consider many factors other than the general soundness of the curriculum itself. In making an analysis of learning experiences, some of the criteria which should be considered are:

1. The significance of the content. With so many possibilities for learning all around, it is essential that only content of sufficient importance be included in the common learnings of the elementary school.
2. The authenticity of the content. Only those learning experiences which are derived from authentic sources and based on valid ideas should be emphasized in the elementary school curriculum.
3. Appropriateness of the content. In determining the suitability of learning experiences for a particular situation, the cultural setting and the social acceptability of the learnings must be taken into account.
4. Suitability of content in relation to maturity of learners. Some learning experiences which may be perfectly appropriate for learners at one level may be entirely suitable for learners at another level of maturity.
5. Functionality of the content. The direct usefulness, as well as the indirect values, of learning experiences must be considered as one of the factors of analysis in the study of the curriculum and its application.

Some of the criteria for judging the effectiveness of learning experiences for children were discussed in an earlier chapter of this volume. Perhaps it is sufficient, therefore, only to reiterate at this point the necessity for viewing and appraising learning experiences in terms of all the contextual factors present in the situation being studied. A detailed discussion of the various approaches to curriculum development and improvement appears in Chapter 9.

The systematic study of the curriculum involves careful attention to the sequence of learning experiences provided for children. Since learning progresses along a continuous line which parallels intellectual maturity and experience to a large degree, the necessity for designing learning experiences which correspond to the stages of maturity and development of children becomes quite obvious. Although it is important to determine thoughtfully what shall be taught, it is equally vital to ascertain at what level each experience will be most fruitful to the learner.

Intellectual ability is not the only basis for ascertaining

the appropriateness of learning experiences for a child. His background of experience, along with other varied environmental influences, also must be considered. Teachers and supervisors who work on the development and revision of the curriculum need a workable understanding of human development in its relationship to children's abilities, needs, and interests.

The sequential aspects of learning, particularly in the skills areas, have definite implications for the selection and use of instructional materials. As a general rule, children at lower levels of maturity need greater contact with manipulative materials and experiences, while children at more advanced levels of maturity, since they have had the benefit of a more extensive background of direct experience, can profit from the more abstract and vicarious types of learning experiences.

One of the great challenges which face educators is that of providing, curriculum-wise, for the continuity of development which characterizes the growth patterns of children. In this area of professional help, supervisors need to exercise both a willingness and an expertness.

Although the vertical sequence of learning experiences is a vital consideration in curriculum development, the manner in which these experiences are organized horizontally is equally important. The concept of learning as a unified process implies the desirability of optimum integration of learning experiences for effective learning. American schools have been marked by the gradual shifting from a highly compartmentalized organization of the curriculum by subjects to a broad-field, or unit type, of organization. This change seems quite consistent with what has been learned about the manner in which children learn best, and seems to provide some built-in assurance, at least, of making use of natural relationships among various components of the curriculum.

Attempts to analyze the qualities of the curriculum, or to appraise its effectiveness, must involve the thoughtful study of the curriculum in operation at the classroom level. This,

in turn, necessitates the careful consideration of the organization of learning experiences so that maximum results may be achieved.

Instructional and Administrative Practices. The study of instructional and administrative practices is an important element in educational analysis. The adequacy of the school curriculum cannot be determined by the comprehensiveness, soundness, or appropriateness of courses of study or curriculum guides in use. Judgment concerning the curriculum can be effectively rendered only after one appraises the impact of the curriculum on children, or has the opportunity to observe the total classroom operation which the curriculum activates. This often means that the curriculum turns out to be no better than the practices used in putting it into operation.

Numerous administrative practices bear directly on the analysis of the instructional program of the school. Some of them are:

1. Legal requirements at the state and local levels
2. Testing program of the school
3. Use made of behavioral records and follow-up procedures
4. Use made of community resources
5. Analysis of community pressures and characteristics
6. Interpretation of research results in the field of education
7. Use made of experimentation in comparing programs and techniques
8. Philosophy of evaluation in the school
9. Nature of promotional policies
10. Selection and allocation of books and other instructional materials.

Though the above list is not intended to be exhaustive, it does tend to show the extent to which school practices are involved in any comprehensive analysis of the school program.

The analysis of the teaching performance itself is quite complex and difficult. It involves both the personality and practices of the teachers as they are continuously affected by contextual factors. Some of the generally accepted com-

ponents of teaching competence were cited in an earlier chapter of this volume. In summary, it may be said that the competent teacher:

1. Has the personal qualities that we wish learners might emulate and that promote the kinds of relationships with children and associates which result in positive outcomes
2. Has a wealth of general information and a breadth of professional understanding which equips him to view purposes and processes in proper context to important values
3. Is a highly skilled professional practitioner fully acquainted with a wide range of effective teaching procedures and techniques and a rich field of teaching resources.

The Learners. The study of learners is an essential component of educational analysis. In the final analysis, schools exist for children and teaching procedures are designed on the assumption that learners will benefit. Since the learner, then, is the beneficiary toward whom all other efforts of the educational situation presumably are directed, the effectiveness of a program can be determined only in terms of what happens to learners as a result of the program.

The study of learners operates at two basic levels. In the first place, learners must be studied as a total group, or school population. It is always desirable to try to determine some of the generalized effects of the program on the composite population of the school. Many of the outcomes expected apply, to some degree, to all children who attend the school. This being true, some of the techniques for studying the instructional program in operation can be applied on a group basis. The best typical approach to group study and appraisal is the use of standardized tests of ability and achievement. In the second place, other information, of a less objective nature, may be obtained through systematic observational techniques and are often indicative of the degree of effectiveness of the school program. Some of these are:

1. The extent of behavior and adjustment problems among children in the school
2. The interest and enthusiasm level of the children as a whole and the degree of pride they have in their school

3. The degree to which children voluntarily do independent work and carry on educational activities outside their assigned responsibilities
4. The proportion of remedial cases among the school population
5. The nature of the group relations exhibited in the classroom and on the playground.

Many of the problems with which teachers seek assistance from supervisors are such that they involve individual diagnoses of learners. While many impressions of the adequacy of the school program can be gained from group study of children, the frequent occurrence of problems involving learners as individuals is sufficient to require that supervisory programs include means for individual diagnosis in such cases.

The deficiencies which interfere with the learning of children may be multiple and varied in nature. Roughly, they fall into the following general classes: (1) problems related to inherent or developed personal traits; (2) problems related to inadequate social development; (3) problems related to educational achievement; and (4) problems related to emotional disturbances.

Since each individual is a unique personality, no set pattern of diagnostic techniques should be expected to be successful with all learners. Techniques should be selected and used in combination in such a manner that there is no hint of trying to mold all children into the same patterns of conformity. Deficiencies of a personal nature usually present some real obstacles to learning and thus must be dealt with in any promising manner available.

As most schools currently are organized, lack of mental ability is probably the most widely recognized deterrent to normal achievement in school. When using intelligence tests for diagnostic purposes, however, some cautions should be exercised in the interpretations of the results. First, when such tests indicate that the learner's ability corresponds with his general achievement, it should be immediately recognized that the problem with the child may be more one of curriculum adjustment than of personal adjustment. Second,

many psychologists insist that IQ's are not inherited, are not always constant, and, in the main, reveal only verbal-intelligence levels.

Many of the social deficiencies of learners are discernible through ordinary observation by the trained teacher or supervisor. The notable symptoms of social insensitivity are those which appear at the extreme ends of the scale of social interaction: extreme overt aggressiveness and undue shyness coupled with the tendency to withdraw from social situations. Since lack of social acceptance is a hindrance to effective learning in a group situation, educators have made increasing use of sociometric techniques in recent years. Based on the choices of children, sociometric charts (sociograms) can be very effective in identifying the presence and degree of social acceptance experienced by each child within his group. More will be said of this technique in Chapter 11.

Problems related to educational achievement are usually varied and not always easily identifiable. Lack of achievement may result from low ability in relation to the tasks assigned, lack of educational background, an inadequate curriculum, lack of motivation and interest, or from a host of other causes. Both standardized achievement tests and diagnostic tests are useful in determining the extent and nature of achievement deficiencies. However, the use of these instruments should be supplemented with all other possible means at the disposal of school personnel. Sometimes the symptoms of ineffective learning are not such that they seem to be directly related to achievement. Some direct and indirect symptoms of ineffective learning are: (1) failure to make progress which corresponds to indicated ability; (2) low scores on survey tests; (3) an undue proportion of over-ageness; (4) undue degree of lethargy and lack of interest among learners as a whole; (5) excessive problems of non-promotion and pupil adjustment; and (6) problems of behavior and emotional maladjustment. Even though these symptoms, and others similar to them, can be applied generally to the total group, they also have implications for individuals who are experiencing educational difficulties.

One of the chief deterrents to satisfactory growth in children is the existence of problems involving emotional disturbance. The diagnosis of such difficulties requires marked patience and considerable skill in working with learners in a sympathetic manner. If the teacher is alert to symptomatic evidences of such maladjustments, he can do much to identify and cope with their attending problems through purely subjective means. Careful observation followed by well-kept anecdotal records often reveals areas of difficulty which require attention. In addition, certain projective techniques are useful in the diagnosis of emotional difficulties.

Before attempting to offer remedial solutions to emotional problems of children, the specific nature of the problem should be defined as clearly as possible. A few of the types of difficulties sometimes encountered by learners in the areas of emotional disturbance follow:

1. Problems related to basic insecurity. These often reveal themselves as fears and anxieties. These may include anxiety over the uncertainty of parents' love, concern over death, or unusually intensive fears of a general or specific nature.
2. Problems related to inferior feelings regarding self. These may include concerns related to physical features, family status, or feelings of inferiority or guilt which persist.
3. Problems related to social acceptability by peers. Such problems are based on the fear of not being liked, or not being included as a member of one's group.
4. Problems related to inability to meet responsibilities or face reality. Many of the common undesirable behavior traits of children are motivated by either the desire to attack, distort, or retreat from, the demands of reality.

STUDY OF CONDITIONS AND INFLUENCES

Any adequate analysis of the teaching-learning situation requires that both the educational process and product be viewed in the context of the conditions which surround them. Two of the major considerations which fall into this category are: (1) the analysis of home and community support of the educational process, and (2) the analysis of the adequacy of

facilities and materials utilized in the educational process. Each of these will be considered briefly in turn.

Home and Community. No longer is it possible, within the framework of our modern philosophy of schools and learning, to operate a school in isolation, apart from the influences of the home and community. Indeed, since the learning of children proceeds on a round-the-clock basis, much progress has been made toward the development of community schools which have capitalized very effectively on home-school relations as a vital factor in educational improvement.

Initially, community conditions and support do affect the quality of education which can be offered. In general, most communities have no better schools than they are willing to work for. It is important, therefore, for educational leaders, such as supervisors and administrators, to exert every effort to create favorable attitudes toward the schools which exist in the community, or which should be provided.

Some of the means through which analyses of community conditions and support may be achieved follow:

1. Constructive use of parent organizations for the purpose of sharing opinions and clarifying purposes
2. Use of the community survey technique to identify resources, improve relations, and discover areas of dissatisfactions
3. Use of adequate provisions for continuous communication and interaction between parents and teachers
4. Participation in educational projects and activities of civic groups within the community
5. Use of advisory groups in the process of broad decision-making in the school and in such activities as broad programs of curriculum improvement
6. Judicious use of questionnaires or checklists in relation to specific problems which the school faces.

School personnel should be sensitive not only to the reactions of the community in general to the program of the school but also to the quality of the relationships which exist between each individual parent and the school. If these relationships, in general, seem to be unfavorable or deteri-

orating, steps should be taken to identify the main causes of such a condition. Some of the aspects of the school program which may be fruitfully examined in such circumstances are these:

1. Attitudes of teachers toward parents
2. Tone and nature of communications which reach the home after being issued at school
3. Appropriateness of school activities to which parents are invited
4. Extent to which parents have an opportunity to visit regular activities of the school
5. Extent to which opportunities are provided for parents to keep abreast of, and participate in, the educational activities of their children
6. Degree to which parents understand the major purposes of the school as they differ from those of another era
7. Degree to which parents understand evaluative procedures and techniques utilized in appraising the achievements of their children
8. Adequacy of existing techniques for reporting the progress of pupils to their parents.

Any number of means may be used to discover the nature of deficiencies in the area of parental understanding and support. Faculty meetings may be devoted to a study of these problems. Parent-teacher planning groups may be established. Analyses may be made of all communications sent from the school over a period of time with a view toward improving their tone and effectiveness. It seems safe to assume that, once a need for such diagnosis is established, numerous ways may be found to improve the situation.

Facilities and Materials. Most of the facilities used in education are of such tangible nature that their presence or absence is immediately discernible. However, in many instances, what constitutes adequacy of facilities and materials is a debatable question. Certainly there have been criteria developed which can be helpful in the systematic analysis of school facilities and in the diagnosis of weaknesses. There are certain points at which it becomes imperative for ad-

ministrators and supervisors to make careful studies of facilities. The first is at the point of planning new facilities. New school plants should be designed in terms of the people they are to serve and the program they are to facilitate. The best possible planning of new school facilities results from a prior study of the projected program and the desired curriculum. The careful study of facilities also is required when broad curriculum study is being initiated, when special programs are being added to the existing offerings, as in the case of special rooms or programs for exceptional children, or when school populations are going through great changes either in nature or size.

One of the basic supporting elements of the school curriculum is an adequate supply of instructional materials and the provision of necessary equipment. Any thoughtful study of the school program must include careful attention to these areas of concern. Hockett¹ has stated well the criteria which may be used in analyzing and evaluating procedures for selection of materials and equipment for elementary schools.

First, each item of equipment and supplies provided in the school must be justified by its contribution to the educational purposes of the school. This criterion implies that without such an item one or more accepted school aims would not be so well, or so fully, or so efficiently, attained.

Second, the equipment and supplies provided in a school should be in harmony with the philosophy of education held by the school staff. If the staff believes that children learn and develop as they are guided to set up worthy purposes for themselves, and are helped to plan and achieve those purposes thru extensive individual and group efforts of many kinds, a great variety of materials and the type of equipment that lends itself to flexibility in use will be needed. If the principal and classroom teachers hold that the best kind of learning involves the two-way process of firsthand contact with reality and firsthand expression thru use of things as well as words, the environment for doing and learning must be rich in things and possibilities. On the other hand, if the staff conceives education to be a pouring-in process, largely verbal in character, fixed seats and a few books will suffice.

¹ John A. Hockett, "Instructional Materials in the School Program," in *Instructional Materials for Elementary Schools* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association of the United States, 1958), pp. 4-8.

Third, equipment and supplies should be appropriate to the maturity and educational level of the pupils who use them. This statement seems obvious if not trite. But to satisfy such a criterion is far from simple when every child in a group is at a different level of achievement and development. We know that many fifth-graders cannot read fifth-grade books, and others in the same class need more difficult materials as a challenge, yet classrooms may still be found where every pupil has the same book labeled "Fifth Reader."

Fourth, both supplies and equipment should be designed and used in accord with the best that is known about how children develop and how learning takes place. To state this criterion is to raise many questions. Is learning more thoro and lasting when children have many vivid, firsthand experiences? To what extent do such experiences reduce the amount of drill necessary to "fix" useful facts and skills? Is it important that children meet and solve various types of problems as they work extensively with a great variety of materials? To elaborate the implications of this criterion would require a large book.

Fifth, equipment and supplies should be well constructed of appropriate materials, designed for repeated, safe use and for efficient storage and maintenance. Printed and pictorial materials should be accurate, authentic, and up to date. To meet this criterion requires the cooperative effort of those who produce school equipment and supplies and those who use them. Such cooperation exists at present, of course, but the effectiveness of the joint efforts might be increased if attention could be directed to critical evaluation in actual use of all materials before they are produced on a large scale. Cooperation of teachers and producers in the planning of new materials is increasing and gives promise of still further improvements in the future.

Sixth, policies governing the selection and purchase of equipment and supplies should be formulated by the board of education, based upon the recommendations of teachers and administrators. Approved lists of equipment and supplies are a time-saving convenience to everyone. However, if education is a vital living process, the experiences and activities in any one classroom will be somewhat different from those of every other room. Consequently, each teacher and class needs the opportunity to request and receive "unusual" materials, over and beyond those in the standardized list. Furthermore, the effort necessary and the red tape that must be overcome in securing these extraordinary supplies should not be so great as to discourage a busy, conscientious teacher from trying to secure them. Such teachers should be encouraged, by all means available, to keep their pupils' experiences vital and challenging.

STUDY OF THE EDUCATIONAL PRODUCT

The success of the school program, in the final analysis, always must be judged in terms of the growth of individual learners in the directions indicated by the purposes of the school. Presumably the program of the school is the activating link between the objectives held by and for learners and their realization expressed in terms of behavioral outcomes. The analysis of these outcomes forms the basis for the evaluation of learning, as well as the appraisal of the instructional program as a whole.

Some of the considerations which should guide the study of learners themselves were discussed briefly in an earlier part of this chapter. It seems desirable at this point, however, to supplement that discussion by indicating some of the approaches and techniques which have been utilized effectively in the analysis of learning difficulties which may interfere with desired educational outcomes:

1. The use of general observation in regular classroom or playground situations to determine generalized achievement or growth of learners, and to identify possible deterrents to learning
2. The use of controlled observations in particular situations involving testing of growth in specific aspects of learning
3. The analysis of records of individual children including:
 - a. Achievement records
 - b. Health records
 - c. Standardized test records
 - d. Anecdotal records
 - e. Personal history records
4. The analysis of the products of pupil endeavor such as:
 - a. Written work
 - b. Oral presentations
 - c. Creative products
5. The use of standardized tests of intelligence and achievement
6. The use of diagnostic scales and tests
7. The use of projective techniques
8. The use of interviews and casual conversations as they reveal problems or difficulties of children

9. The use of clinical tests and services to identify and determine the nature of obstacles which may interfere with the realization of desired educational attainments
10. The use of sociometric devices for determining social deterrents to learning
11. The use of case studies of individual learners
12. The use of personality inventories
13. The analysis of reading records of children
14. The analysis of interest inventories.

In using these various means for studying children in relation to instructional outcomes, it should be remembered that there are different levels of diagnosis in terms of the purpose to be achieved, for example, (1) general diagnosis to evaluate the characteristics of the educational product, (2) analytical diagnosis to identify and locate specific deficiencies in learning, and (3) psychological diagnosis to determine the causes of the weaknesses thus identified.

Educational outcomes are not always expressed in units of behavior which are readily susceptible to either measurement or analysis. Educators must be interested not only in the amount of learning achieved by children, but also in the quality and scope of the learning which has occurred. In spite of the possibilities inherent in the judicious use of various available techniques for studying such outcomes, it still requires the skill of an ingenious teacher to insure that such analysis is truly productive. Supervisors can render a genuinely appreciated service by helping teachers develop or discover added resources for appraising the educational product more effectively.

SOME SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVING UNDERSTANDING OF DIAGNOSTIC PROCESSES IN SUPERVISION

1. Make a careful examination of a case study of a child who has experienced learning difficulties. Try to determine the essential elements of an effective case study report.
2. Consult a school psychologist or reading clinician to find out the steps involved in diagnosing the learning difficulties of a child.

3. Study the nature of some of the commonly used diagnostic tests in the various areas of the curriculum.
4. Observe some classroom; note the diagnostic procedures employed by the teacher.
5. Try to get information about the available agencies in the community which are equipped to offer specialized services in the diagnosis of adjustment problems of children.

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Chapter 6

Evaluative Function of Supervision

The evaluative process has never been so widely used as during the present era of our history. On every hand, individuals and agencies are passing judgments, not only on their own activities but on each other. Civilization has produced an expanding array of ideas and things from which people choose and on which they make comparative judgments. In turn, when choices are involved, as they are continuously in the lives of most people, the process of evaluative judgment is immediately involved. Thus, ordinary living requires a considerable amount of evaluation, aside from that which is connected with specialized professional processes.

Increased interest in evaluation as an integral part of the total educational process has been the result of several social, cultural, and educational influences. The changing social structure of our society has virtually forced educators to re-examine certain elements of the school program in relation to new needs and emphases. Similarly, changing patterns of family life and the growing relationships between home and school have focused attention on the need for the critical appraisal of many school practices. Political tensions and international conflicts, physical and ideological, have brought renewed interest in matters closely related to the evaluation of educational systems and practices. More directly, perhaps, the public criticisms of educational purposes and procedures which have occurred in this country in recent years

have spurred efforts to analyze and evaluate schools and their products. Certainly, most educators would agree that a society which is changing as rapidly as ours demands that educational programs be subjected to continuous evaluation of purposes, procedures, and outcomes. It is only in this way that educational progress can keep abreast of need.

The term "evaluation" has different meanings for different people. Generally speaking, *evaluation is considered to be the process by which is determined the degree and quality of achievement appraised in terms of purpose and within the framework of existing conditions.* Evaluation involves much more than measurement. Measurement is a component of evaluation, but evaluation is much broader in its scope since it involves the additional process of applying judgment to the results of measurement. This relationship will be treated in more detail in subsequent parts of this chapter.

BASIC PRINCIPLES IN EVALUATION

Evaluation, sometimes a rather complex process, employs both objective and subjective activity. It involves the use of many types of instruments for appraisal. While there may be many different but worthwhile approaches to evaluation in education, it is usually helpful to examine, view, and formulate such practices within the framework of generally accepted principles. Some of these principles are included at this point to serve as a guide to other considerations in evaluation.

Evaluation is a continuous process. The democratic process is one which is never presumed to reach the stage of perfection. As long as this is true, there will never be a time when educators can justifiably assume that there is no further need for careful examination of educational processes and products. In effect, this means that education must be subjected to a continuous search for better ways of meeting its responsibilities to individuals and to the society it serves. This search involves some type of evaluation as it may be applied to education at all levels and in all of its channels.

At all levels of educational endeavor, human beings are capable of improvement. The evaluative process, utilized continuously, becomes the basis on which possibilities for improvement are identified and on which avenues to improvement are indicated. Actually, evaluation is an inherent part of daily classroom teaching or of the day-to-day activities of the supervisor. While this type of continuity is essential to stimulating teaching or helpful supervision, the emphasis on the continuous quality of evaluation is not intended to negate the desirability of periodic, organized efforts to evaluate the school program on a broader and more thorough basis. It may be said, however, that a school program characterized by the continuous evaluation of the staff will present a much less acute need for a special, intensive evaluation effort than would otherwise be true.

Evaluation must include or be preceded by analysis and diagnosis. Evaluation is primarily concerned with the effectiveness of a total process or the adequacy of a unit product. It is not safe to assume, however, that this is the only concern of evaluation. In fact, the total process of evaluation, as applied to education, cannot be appraised without giving particularized attention to important elements of the process. This merely means that appraisal of the total endeavor can hardly be made without engaging in appropriate diagnostic activity. The process of analyzing classroom activities, for example, in terms of evidence of purpose, adequacy of instructional materials, teaching methodology, and human relationships, requires skills in the field of educational diagnosis and study. Evaluations based on erroneous analysis of existing practices and conditions are practically worthless. In fact, the total process of evaluation can be no more effective than the ability of evaluators to analyze an educational situation with expertness.

Evaluation is quite inclusive in scope and technique. The appraisal process must depend upon many sources for the collection of necessary data. This concept of inclusiveness is important particularly in relation to the diagnostic phases of evaluation. The evaluator is interested basically in gath-

ering evidence which will indicate growth or change, and which will serve as a springboard to further action. This can be done only through the use of all available instruments for gathering such evidence. Some of these means are objective in nature and others are quite judgmental in character. All are important to the extent that they are usable in a particular situation or are suitable for gathering data for a specific purpose. Sources of information necessary for evaluation vary from the writing records and activities of children to ability, achievement, and projective tests.

Evaluation is the primary basis for improvement. Whether applied to learning, teaching, or supervision, the process of evaluation is prerequisite to improvement. Change in itself, though inevitable, may not necessarily be desirable unless it is directed toward constructive goals. And how may one be reasonably sure that such change will be constructive unless the impetus for it is examined and determined to be based on sound values and desirable purposes? It seems obvious that education is such a vital part of the whole system of democracy that change in its processes can hardly be left either to chance or whim. Rather, it seems imperative that educators themselves offer leadership in the continuous effort to gather evidence which will be both valid and useful in providing sound bases for educational improvement. In this effort, of course, all persons and agencies who have a rightful stake in education should be allowed to participate in appropriate ways.

Evaluation involves a purpose. The best evaluation procedures for a particular school must be based on a constructive and understood philosophy of education which has been developed for that school. Evaluation is value-centered and, as such, must have its outcomes viewed and appraised in terms of the values which prompt its processes. Directly, the evaluation of outcomes must be based on the nature of the purposes established for the educational effort involved. Purposes, however, emerge from values which are held to be sufficiently important to require a conscious educational effort to perpetuate or promote them. This relationship be-

tween values and purposes, and between purposes and evaluation, is vital to an understanding of the real nature and function of evaluation in education.

In a democracy, some of the purposes of education will be realized in the educational product primarily but others, perhaps less obviously, will be closely related to the process employed. Evaluation, therefore, must be concerned with both the product and the process if it is to aid in the appraisal of past efforts and serve as a guide to future effort.

Evaluation involves attention to existing conditions. The measurement and appraisal of growth involves more than an examination of outcomes, processes, and purposes—important as these are in educational evaluation. Each educational situation in which evaluation occurs is unique in that it involves a set of circumstances, or surroundings, all its own. The fact that two boys, with similar goals, have demonstrated about the same amount of growth during a given period of time may not be enough information on which to base an evaluation of such growth. The motivation, the background, and the environmental conditions surrounding each case may be quite essential to the evaluation of the growth which apparently resulted. This appears to be equally true in the evaluation of professional efforts and growth of teachers and others involved in education.

Evaluation is positively oriented. Both instruction and supervision of an earlier age were so marked by the application of preconceived, critical standards to the performances of learners and teachers that it has been difficult to keep the whole developing process of evaluation free from a persisting attitude of negativism. Even the rating scales for teachers and the reports of children's progress in school have too often emphasized weaknesses rather than strengths, problems rather than progress.

The process of evaluation, to be truly effective, must include some areas of hopefulness in its outcomes. The importance of determining status and growth through evaluation does not preclude the possibility of using evaluative techniques in such a manner that they have a motivating,

rather than a discouraging, effect on the person whose growth is being appraised. Much of this attribute of positiveness comes from the attitude of the personnel employing evaluative techniques as well as from the nature of the technique or instrument itself. At any rate, one cannot effectively engage in evaluative procedures without considering the effects of the evaluation on persons being evaluated. When this is done, it is hoped that evaluators will conclude that it is best to keep such procedures on a positive plane wherever possible.

Evaluation is both objective and subjective in nature. As the process of supervision has become more scientific, an attempt has been made to insure greater objectivity in its component processes. As a result, much emphasis has been placed on objectivity in evaluation. This rather marked emphasis may have contributed to the apparent failure of some practicing educators to realize that the process of evaluation, by its very nature, involves both measurement and judgment. To a great extent, therefore, it must be both objective and subjective.

Objectivity in measurement is highly desirable. When one is attempting to appraise the amount of growth of an individual learner or teacher, he needs to employ instruments of measurement which are as free from personal bias as possible. When this is done, it serves as a basis for subsequent judgments which also are a part of the evaluative process. It is hoped that supervisors, and others interested in the evaluative process, will realize the importance of the scientific objective approach in measurement and the intelligent approach in making judgmental appraisals to a degree that will insure optimum value and validity in evaluation.

Evaluation is a corporate activity. Inasmuch as the productivity of a learner or teacher is affected by other persons, the quality of the outcome of productive effort should be evaluated on a co-operative basis if the truest and most beneficial form of evaluation is to be achieved. Some will insist, of course, that evaluations, to be objective, must be made by persons free from the emotional involvements of the person

being evaluated; others will contend with equal vigor that self-evaluation can be based on knowledge not possessed by an outside evaluator, and thus is the most valuable type of evaluation. Although some support can be given to each of these positions, true evaluation seeks to make use of the judgments of all persons involved in a situation.

Evaluation is concerned with both process and product. The modern concept of learning is such that it is assumed that educational growth is demonstrated as much by *what is done* as by *what is known*. For example, growth in citizenship can be noted as much, or more, by the behavior of a developing child as from his ability to recite from patriotic documents, desirable as this may be considered to be. If learning, then, is reflected both by active processes and end products, evaluation also must be concerned with both aspects of a child's development as he pursues educational tasks.

Evaluation is more a means than an end. The basic justification for evaluation lies in its relationship to improvement. It is not the purpose of evaluation to serve as an end in itself. It is its main purpose to serve as the means to an end through providing a systematic basis upon which efforts toward improvement may be developed. In essence, this means that the process of evaluation is never complete until something is done, or planned, in terms of its results. The supervisor will find that efforts related to helping teachers plan effective follow-up activities constitute an area of genuinely fruitful endeavor.

Evaluative processes themselves should be subjected to evaluation. Much progress has been made in the matter of improving evaluation techniques. Tests are being continuously refined and the professional preparation of teachers is improving in the matter of providing greater skill and judgment in applying the newer and broader forms of appraisal to educational growth. However, there is always the possibility for improvement. Since evaluation techniques must be valued in terms of their situational usefulness, they must always be subject to continuous examination as to their suit-

ability for the particular situations in which they are employed.

PURPOSES OF EVALUATION

Evaluation serves a number of different purposes as it is related to the improvement of educational practice. Some of these purposes are rather direct in nature while others are more indirect. Certainly all of them have a functional connection with the work of the supervisor. For that reason, a few of them are listed and discussed at this point.

A basic purpose of evaluation is motivation. It has been stated many times that "nothing succeeds like success itself." Perhaps it would be more accurate to say that nothing contributes to success more than the knowledge of previous successes. In any case, it is important for any individual, learner or teacher, to have information regarding how well his efforts are succeeding—how they are being regarded and appraised by others. True evaluation, accomplished in a co-operative manner, can make a vital contribution to the morale and effort of those being evaluated.

Evaluation also serves an essential diagnostic purpose. Through diagnosis it is possible to identify strengths on which to build and weaknesses which need alleviating. Co-operative evaluation furnishes a direction in which efforts may be made toward improvement. This applies equally well to individual learners or to groups which constitute the total population of a school or school system.

Another purpose of evaluation is to maintain an awareness of the continuous relationship which exists between educational objectives and educational achievement. Such an awareness helps insure that teachers will view results of their teaching performance in terms of designated aims and within the total environmental situation.

Evaluation may serve another important purpose through its emphasis on the relationship of behavior to the study of values. In fact, the chief function of evaluation is that of analyzing behavior or achievement, in terms of values held to

be important. Thus, engaging in the process of evaluation might well sharpen the abilities of teachers to participate in the processes of value-analysis.

The process of evaluation may serve another important in-service function. It may provide opportunities, if not the necessity, for teachers to become more broadly acquainted with the various instruments and *methods for studying children and their growth and development*. This, in turn, may have very constructive effects on classroom procedures, particularly as they are related to the individualization of instruction.

Certainly, one of the primary purposes of evaluation is to provide a basis for curriculum revision and improvement. Curriculum study must be followed by some type of appraisal of current practice and emphasis if it is to result in improvement. As a general rule, curriculum improvement is brought about by strengthening elements of the curriculum rather than by wholesale revision of total curriculum patterns. Such activity, to be intelligent, must be based on evaluation.

Undoubtedly, there are other functions of evaluation in the modern elementary school. Co-operative types of evaluation may contribute to increased proficiency in group interaction, to the clarification of educational goals, and even to improved public relations in the school-community.

Ideally, evaluative techniques must be incorporated into each of the various phases and levels of educational effort. There is a need for continuous appraisal of educational purposes, instructional techniques, materials of instruction, educational outcomes, and many other facets of the school's program. At least three levels of evaluation seem to be of such prime importance that they merit particular attention: evaluation of the school's program, evaluation of pupil growth, and evaluation of teaching effectiveness.

EVALUATION OF THE PROGRAM

Schools are the instruments created by society to help produce the type of citizenry consistent with the values it wishes

to perpetuate and sustain. The schools' purposes, then, must be consistent with the goals of the society of which they are a part. This inseparable relationship which exists between the American way of life and American public education is one of the distinguishing and valued features of our particular society. The importance of this relationship was sensed clearly by our forefathers who shaped our form of constitutional government on the assumption that education was an essential requisite to government based on self-determination. While the interrelationship of educational effort and political destiny seems sound and desirable, the fact that the maintenance and further development of the American way of life is so dependent upon the quality of our educational programs does place great responsibility on the profession and society for providing for the education of the citizenry in the most effective way possible.

The task of providing for the best possible program of education, consistent with democratic ideals, requires continuous evaluation of existing programs in terms of democratic purposes and human needs. Basically, this task resolves itself into two responsibilities: (1) to make it possible for each individual to develop to his greatest potential, and (2) to develop a citizenry who are equipped to meet the acceptable demands of society in an effective and responsible manner. It is recognized, of course, that society itself has certain persisting elements of values, and, also, changing elements of values. This means, of course, that the purposes and practices of education must include appropriate attention to both sustaining the cultural heritage and providing for new needs and demands. Education viewed in this light must be both stable and dynamic.

The extent to which education is making its proper contribution to the democratic way of living which we espouse in America can be determined only through some means of evaluation. Since these considerations are largely philosophic in character, they do not lend themselves to the more clear-cut objective instruments of appraisal. There are, however, several approaches that can be made to the task of

evaluating the effectiveness of schools. Some of these are: (1) an analysis of the societal effects of mass education in the country; (2) periodic examination or review of educational programs in terms of considered statements of purposes; (3) the analysis of public reactions; and (4) follow-up of studies of learners in nonschool activities.

The analysis of the societal effects of mass education reveals some very interesting developments. For example, during a period in which some have chosen to suggest that the fundamental skills of education have not been taught well, the literacy level of the population of the United States has risen notably. This has been accomplished during a period in which the purposes and tasks assumed by schools have been broadened continuously. If one is to assume that enlightenment is one of the qualifying bases for effective citizenship under our form of government, then the dramatic improvement in the literacy level of the population certainly must be considered as a contribution to the achievement of the purposes of our society.

Another element in current life which is interesting to note in connection with an analysis of the effects of mass education is the standard of living attained by the typical American family. It seems to be more than mere coincidence that the United States, which has engaged in the greatest experiment in mass education known to the world, should also enjoy an unusually high standard of living. In attempts, therefore, to evaluate the over-all and long-range effects of our system of education, it is well to make a careful examination of how well prospective citizens are being equipped to live happily and well in our current and emerging society.

A second facet of the evaluation of the school program in general involves the periodic examination of the educational products of the school in relation to the purposes to which the people of the country are committed. Many thoughtful statements of purpose have been formulated to guide educational effort. Among the best of these is the statement of *Purposes of Education in American Democracy*, issued by the Educational Policies Commission of the National Educa-

tion Association in 1938. It is sufficient to emphasize at this point the necessity for the maintenance of a clear recognition and understanding of the major purpose of education if one is to attempt to make any justifiable appraisal of educational programs and practices.

Public appraisal and criticism of the school program offer a third springboard from which educational evaluation may proceed. Although it is quite obvious to thoughtful educators and laymen alike that many of the criticisms of education spring from selfish, or even vicious motives, some of the reactions to existing educational programs are based on reasonable, and sometimes valid, points of view. Criticisms of the latter type often can provide the impetus for more careful examination of school practice, and thus can be actually helpful in the strengthening of the school program.

Just as the "proof of the pudding is in the eating," the real test of the adequacy and quality of the school program lies in the postschool behavior and performance of children. This is to say that the truest evaluation of the school program can be gained from the investigation of the activities of pupils after they have completed the offerings of the school program. In view of this fact, follow-up studies of children are conducted in many school communities and the findings of such studies are used as one of the bases for evaluating the effectiveness of the school program.

EVALUATION OF PUPIL GROWTH

In the foregoing section, attention focused on the importance of continuous evaluation of the total school program and some of the evidences of quality in such a program were cited. A second basic concern of educators is the evaluation of pupil growth. This is accomplished both through broad, subjective observations and through more scientific, objective means. The evaluation of pupil growth involves not only an appraisal of the generalized evidences of growth but also the more specific aspects of a child's educational development.

Evaluation of pupil growth can be made only in terms of educational objectives. Unless one knows clearly what he is working to achieve, he will have little notion of his success in realizing his goals. Nonpurposeful effort usually is wasteful and difficult to evaluate. Educators who wish to make full use of the process of evaluation of pupil growth must first establish goals which furnish direction for their efforts and, furthermore, which serve as a set of criteria by which accomplishment may be judged.

Evaluation of pupil growth should not fail to consider the factor of ability. Pupil growth cannot be evaluated on a mass basis. Each child possesses a different background from all others and works within the framework of his own potential. As schools have been typically organized, tasks have been assigned to children largely on a general or common basis while the abilities of children have been highly individualized. This has created the necessity for teachers to consider differing abilities when evaluating the success with which children perform learning activities. Theoretically, though a child profits greatly from being a member of a group, his growth must always be evaluated largely in terms of individualized considerations.

Evaluation should include attention to the total growth of the learner. Learners must succeed, if they are to succeed, as unified individuals with composite personalities. While it is true that persons cannot be expected to grow equally strong in all directions or in all facets of development, it must be admitted that individuals behave in such a manner that they affect others as a total personality. They also perform and produce as whole individuals. The recognition of this fact seems to emphasize the importance of evaluative procedures which include attention to the total growth of children.

Evaluation of specific aspects of growth is an important part of the educational process. Notwithstanding the statements above concerning the relative importance of considering the total personality of the child, one of the basic purposes of evaluation is that of appraising growth in specific aspects of the child's educational development. Some of

these areas are: (1) physical growth, (2) intellectual growth including skills and understanding, (3) growth in social proficiency, and (4) growth in attitudes and appreciation.

PHYSICAL GROWTH

Physical growth is basic to the over-all development of the child and, in a sense, underlies all other aspects of growth. The relationship of physical well-being to the vigor necessary for meeting the demands of the life of the growing child makes it a vital factor of concern for all who work with children. Furthermore, the physical development of a child affects his attitudes toward the world around him and thus may contribute to social and emotional adjustment or maladjustment.

In the modern elementary school, attention to the physical development and needs of children is considered of primary importance. A genuine relationship exists between school progress and the physical condition of children attending school. This attention is focused on many facets of physical well-being. Also, the rate of physical growth, and the problems attending it, vary with the stage of development of the child. In the main, however, the aspects of physical growth which demand the most attention in the modern elementary school are:

1. Height and weight. While these may not be of crucial importance in themselves, they sometimes are related to social and emotional disturbance, or may be indicative of glandular difficulties. It is not to be expected, of course, that all children should follow the same patterns of height and weight but sharp deviations from normal ranges of height and weight should be noted carefully in studying the total growth pattern of the child.

2. Nutrition. During the active years of the child's life in the elementary school, he must have a supply of energy commensurate with the energy demands made upon him by his daily routines. If a child is malnourished, he cannot possibly build up the level of energy necessary for living and

learning most effectively, nor for developing physically in an optimum manner. Ways of improving learnability of children through attention to physical needs will be discussed in a later chapter.

3. Dentition and tooth care. Problems of dentition and tooth decay are proper concerns of the school since tooth impairment is rather closely related to certain types of infection and to the digestive functions of the body. The appearance of the teeth of children may also have implications for social comfort and security in the relationships of children with their peers. More emphasis on dental hygiene in the schools and better relations with the home and with community agencies have brought about an increased consciousness of the importance of proper dental care in many school communities.

4. Fatigue. Acute fatigue may be an indication of more serious disturbance in the physical development of children. It may suggest the presence of a condition of malnutrition, it may indicate lack of proper rest and sleep, or it may be connected with, or the aftermath of, certain diseases such as rheumatic fever. In any case, a child suffering from more than the usual fatigue should be watched carefully and protected from unnecessary activities of a strenuous nature.

5. Communicable disease. The modern elementary school quite properly has accepted increasing responsibility for the control of communicable disease among children. While it is still rare for a child to be able to proceed through the elementary school without having one or more of the common diseases such as mumps, chicken pox, or measles, both the incidence and seriousness of many diseases have been reduced in most communities through careful control and proper medical care and inoculations. One of the main concerns of parents and teachers is that a disease shall not produce aftereffects which will diminish the vigor of the child as he proceeds through school.

6. Physical defects and handicaps. Certainly, many of the physical defects experienced by children have a direct bearing on the ability of such children to profit from the educa-

tional program of activities offered them. The incidence of speech and hearing difficulties is sufficiently high to command the attention of all educators charged with the responsibility for providing a suitable educational program for all children. Orthopedic handicaps are often such as to require particular adjustments in the organization of the learning environment and experiences for children who possess such handicaps. Limited vision is another handicap which affects the educational activity of many children of elementary-school age. These and other types of physical deviation must be taken into account in the planning, organizing, and evaluating stages of the elementary-school program.

Obviously, the physical development of children is largely a matter of maturation. A child's physical growth is affected both by factors inherent in the child and by those of an environmental nature. A sufficient number of studies of child development have been made to formulate a systematic basis for the study and analysis of patterns of development. There is some danger, however, in making rigid and inflexible applications of norms of development in children to a given child in a given situation without careful prior consideration to all the situational factors involved. Nevertheless, it is possible to determine, with a reasonable degree of assurance, whether the physical growth of children is proceeding along favorable lines, and to detect, in many instances, aspects of deficiency which are remediable through proper activities of the home and school.

Human behavior and development, by the complexity of their nature, do not lend themselves to precise predictions nor to the application of specific standards. It does seem possible, though, to utilize certain bases as criteria for making judgments of some validity concerning a child's physical growth. Basically, four steps can be taken in making such judgments. They are:

1. Study the norms of growth for children of comparable chronological age operating under similar cultural conditions. This information is obtainable from child study clinics or from vari-

ous researches which have been done in the field of child development.

2. Study the individual growth pattern of the particular child under observation. It is recognized quite generally that individual children differ in growth patterns in terms of such factors as sex and family background. Therefore, it is necessary to consider increments or aspects of growth in the context of each child's pattern of development.
3. Appraise the general character of the child's growth in relation to norms of growth and to the child's development pattern. This will provide a generalized basis for judging the degree to which the physical development of a child is proceeding in a desired manner.
4. Identify specific aspects of growth, if any, which seem to be affecting the total growth pattern. It is always possible that some particular physical need may be detrimental to the child's development in ways extending beyond the need itself.

The development of a child physically and otherwise, involves internal and intangible factors as well as external evidences. This makes the process of measurement in the area of physical development almost as subjective as the measurement of other presumably more abstract aspects of educational growth. If, then, one attempts to measure and appraise the various aspects of physical growth, he must utilize for the purpose all the approaches and instruments available for gaining data about the child. Some of the possible sources of information are:

1. The home history of the child. This can be gained from parents through conferences, casual conversations, or through information from more formalized forms submitted by parents.
2. The educational history of the child. Records which reveal attendance patterns of the child through the years, or which indicate serious illnesses or accidents can be very useful in studying the growth of the child.
3. Anecdotal records. Valuable clues to the possible causes of deviations in a child's growth pattern may be gained from day-to-day records of his behavior. Many physical deficiencies are reflected first in erratic behavior or change of attitude.

4. Health records. Cumulative health records are particularly valuable sources of information with respect to many phases of a child's physical development. They are unusually worthwhile in the establishment of the general characteristics of the child's individual pattern of growth.
5. Health examinations. Screening examinations administered in the school provide information which is invaluable to the study of physical growth. Through such examinations, if they are properly administered, information can be gained with respect to general physical condition and vigor, vision, hearing, and other aspects of physical well-being.
6. Consultation with parents. Sometimes, a physical problem of a child is such that particular information from parents is needed and helpful. This is especially true in cases in which there is evidence of rather dramatic and unexplained change in the condition and attitude of the child.
7. Consultation with specialists. School nurses and physicians, as well as other professional specialists, can be vital sources of information concerning the growth and growth problems of children. Certainly teachers and others will wish to make full use of whatever expert assistance is available in their attempts to study and appraise the growth of children, and to diagnose the nature of deficiencies in this area of physical growth.
8. Continuous observation by the teacher. Nothing can replace day-to-day observations of the teacher in the process of appraising physical development. The teacher views the child in varied situations and thus has the opportunity for gaining various types of information most vital to child study.

INTELLECTUAL GROWTH AND ACHIEVEMENT

One of the primary purposes of the American public school has been the development of the intellectual powers of children. Although it has been increasingly realized that all aspects of growth are interrelated to a large degree, the mental, or intellectual, growth of the child has continued to be a predominant concern of educators, parents, and lay citizens.

In the modern elementary school, intellectual growth is considered to be important in two ways: (1) in terms of pro-

iding for the well-rounded, general intellectual development of the individual, and (2) in terms of the achievement of the purposes of education in American democracy which require the development of particular skills, understandings, and attitudes.

The intellectual development of a child, in general, finds expression in several different ways. While it is not the intent here to attempt to provide any exact scale against which mental growth may be measured, it is considered advisable to include a few categories of behavioral change which tend to accompany intellectual growth.

An expanding vocabulary is rather closely related to mental growth. In fact, facility in language, though affected greatly by environmental opportunities, is generally considered to be concrete evidence of such growth.

Ability to see interrelationships among various factors of the surrounding environment is another evidence of mental development. The growing ability to sense the interplay of the elements of a situation or to identify cause-and-effect relationships is usually present in favorable patterns of intellectual development.

Increasing ability to do problem-solving is still another evidence of positive growth in intellectual power. This does not necessarily mean that such ability must be reflected in particular areas of learning, but rather in any situation which requires the answers to questions, or the removal of obstacles to the achievement of goals.

Intellectual growth is sometimes reflected in the ability to adjust to existing conditions. As the individual develops in his proficiency in dealing with his environment, he appears to learn the advantages and acquire the means of adapting himself to his surroundings. Oftentimes, this process of adjustment is illustrated very clearly when the child first enters school, which, for him, is an entirely new experience. As a rule, the more mature the child, the easier the adjustment.

As children develop intellectually, they seem to grow in their ability to make reasoned predictions. Simply stated, this is the ability to make use of past and current experi-

ence in planning for the future. Proficiency in making projective judgments appears to be rather closely related to general mental development.

Intellectual growth is often revealed by an array of broadening interests. The child begins life in a very small world made up of his immediate environment. Normally, however, his world gradually has its horizons pushed back until he is presented with a continuously expanding arena of environmental possibilities for exploration and action. The typical child is stimulated, as he develops intellectually, to wider and deeper interests concerning the world about him.

Another evidence of intellectual growth is an increasing memory span. The mind of the very immature child appears to flit from one situation to another with very little concentration on a particular activity for any prolonged period of time. Although there are exceptions, which might be explained for other reasons, the length of the attention span and the memory span of the child appear to be related to mental development.

The ability to exercise social and moral judgments is another evidence of growth in children. Consideration is something to be learned by children and it appears to bear some relationship to general development.

The foregoing paragraphs have been devoted to a discussion of some of the earmarks of intellectual growth, in general, as it occurs in children of elementary-school age. The proficiencies and characteristics mentioned are not only desirable ends in themselves but, more importantly, they also represent the powers through which the major purposes of the school are realized.

Some attention was given to the purposes of education in an earlier chapter, but it seems desirable at this point to reiterate a few of the basic aims of the school as they are related to the achievement of learners, individually and collectively. Perhaps it should be pointed out also that evaluation of growth can occur only when increments of growth or achievement are measured and judged in terms of objectives and within the framework of surrounding conditions.

Briefly stated, the primary purposes of the program of the elementary school are to promote:

1. The development of skills needed for self-development and efficient living within the current world society
2. An understanding of the physical and social environment in which we find ourselves
3. Social consideration and skills necessary for effective group living
4. The development of effective work skills and habits
5. The appreciation of beauty in all its forms
6. An appreciation for the basic tenets of democracy as they are related to effective citizenship
7. The development of intellectual and spiritual resources of each individual.

EDUCATIONAL ACHIEVEMENT

As mentioned above, evaluation of educational growth must first be based on the establishment of the educational purposes toward whose accomplishment planned learning experiences are directed, and against which their outcomes are adjudged. Evaluation also depends heavily upon the development and use of appropriate instruments and means for measuring increments of growth. In the main, some types of achievement test have been the primary means whereby growth resulting from instructional procedures has been measured. Such tests do not provide the only means, of course, for determining achievement in the various areas of the elementary school curriculum. The listings given below include a few of the approaches ordinarily used for evaluative purposes in the modern elementary school. Undoubtedly, the more ingenious teacher, or supervisor, will be able to devise other suitable ways of appraising pupil-status, understanding, or achievement.

For the purpose of determining intellectual ability or aptitude for doing schoollike tasks:

1. Individual standardized intelligence tests such as:
 - a. The Stanford Revision of the Binet Test
 - b. The Wechsler Intelligence Scale.

2. Group standardized intelligence tests such as:
 - a. California Test of Mental Maturity
 - b. The Otis Tests (Alpha, Beta)
 - c. Kuhlman-Anderson Intelligence Tests
 - d. Pintner General Ability Tests.
3. Systematic observation of behavior as demonstrated by such things as:
 - a. Vocabulary level
 - b. Language facility
 - c. Ability to analyze a situation into its parts
 - d. Ability to synthesize parts into a whole
 - e. Ability to see relationships.

For the purpose of measuring achievement

1. Standardized achievement tests (general type) such as:
 - a. Metropolitan Achievement Tests
 - b. Stanford Achievement Tests
 - c. California Achievement Tests.
2. Standardized achievement tests in specific areas, such as:
 - a. Gates Basic Reading Test
 - b. Iowa Tests of Silent Reading
 - c. Iowa Every-Pupil Tests of Basic Skills in Arithmetic
 - d. Ayres Spelling Scale.
3. Teacher-constructed tests such as:
 - a. Short-answer objective tests involving simple recall, matching, multiple-choice or completion
 - b. Essay tests carefully devised so that they can be scored in a reasonably objective manner
 - c. Performance scales.
4. Other classroom-oriented techniques, such as:
 - a. Problem-situation tests requiring the analysis of real or simulated situations
 - b. Analysis of pupil-constructed products
 - c. Inventories of work habits and activities
 - d. Records of learning achievements, projects, or problems
 - e. Interpretation of written work
 - f. Dramatic portrayal of events or situations
 - g. Role-playing
 - h. Interviews
 - i. Analysis of creative work and expression.

In the foregoing discussion of commonly used instruments for measuring achievement, no attempt has been made to include all aspects of testing which may be profitably utilized in the elementary school. Certainly, a systematic testing program would include attention to such areas as reading readiness and the diagnosis of learning difficulties since these are related to achievement. However, rather than include an exhaustive treatment here of the numerous types of tests available for various purposes, it is suggested that the supervisor, or prospective supervisor, obtain and consult specialized textbooks¹ and test catalogs² for detailed descriptions of tests. Another source of valuable information concerning tests is the mental measurements yearbook.³

Some criteria for selecting tests. The selection of tests can be accomplished more intelligently if it is guided by certain generally accepted criteria. Some of these are:

1. Validity—the extent to which a test measures what it purports to measure
2. Reliability—the consistency with which a test measures what it measures
3. Objectivity—the degree to which the bias or judgment of the scorer is eliminated from the scoring process
4. Suitability—the degree to which a test fulfills the purpose for which it is selected
5. Ease of administration—the degree to which it can be administered by a reasonably competent person without jeopardizing its results in the process
6. Ease of scoring—in terms of the objectivity of the test and the nature of the scoring key
7. Ease of interpretation—the degree to which the raw results can be translated into useful data
8. Economy—the relationship of the cost of the test to its value.

¹ For example, see Victor Noll, *Introduction to Educational Measurement* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1957).

² Such as: The Psychological Corp., New York

World Book Company, *Yankees*, N. Y.

Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill.

³ Oscar Buros (ed.), *Fourth Mental Measurements Yearbook* (Highland Park, N. J.: The Gryphon Press, 1953).

SOCIAL PROFICIENCY

Social competence involves a two-way process. In the first place, social acceptance is an important element in effective social interaction. In the second place, social proficiency involves the ability to perform in such a manner in relation to others that an optimum social and working climate is created and maintained. Children begin their lives in a rather self-centered manner; they must learn to become effective social creatures. The achievement of peaceful and wholly productive social interaction appears never to be completely realized, but growth toward social adjustment and efficiency certainly is one of the more important outcomes of a sound and stimulating educational program.

Growth in social effectiveness, though not as susceptible to measurement as growth in academic skills, can be noted through observational techniques as they are applied to the day-to-day behavior of the child, and through the use of more systematic devices such as sociometry or selected projective techniques.

Observation. Though the process of observation as a means of appraising social development admittedly is quite subjective, it can yield useful evidence of such growth. Some of the behavioral manifestations of favorable social development are such as the following:

1. Increasing willingness and ability to co-operate with others in the achievement of a common goal. Such ability is marked by a minimum of conflict and the general willingness to accept nominal, or even relatively unpleasant, tasks necessary for the realization of group objectives.
2. Increasing willingness and ability to arrive at intelligent compromise. This attribute is characterized by agreement to abide by consensus or majority opinion, and by a general willingness to "give-and-take."
3. A developing poise in social situations. This can be noted in the decreasing embarrassment which accompanies performance in an audience situation, or in evidences of increasing comfort in informal group situations.

4. The improved ability to communicate easily and effectively in social situations in the home, school, or community.
5. An emerging and refined sense of justice. As a child develops socially, he is able to demonstrate the ability to be more objective in his consideration of the rights and responsibilities of those around him.
6. Increasing tolerance toward persons of different backgrounds or opposing opinions. This attribute is marked by a diminishing of prejudice and by the ability to apply reason to the resolution of problem situations involving conflict.
7. Increasing utilization of indirect means for achieving personal desires. The socially immature child often attempts to solve his problems, or to impress his peers, by meeting the situation with rather direct, overt behavior. As a child develops socially, he shows an increasing sensitivity to the value of the subtle approach in many situations.
8. A developing sense of common courtesy and consideration. *If the child is developing favorably along social lines, he will show an increasing tendency to regard the feelings of others both in the home and school.*

Sociogram. In addition to attempts to appraise social efficiency through the observational application of such criteria as those just mentioned, efforts have been made to establish some basis for the determination of the nature and quality of the interpersonal relationships of children who compose classroom groups. The most systematic and commonly used device for judging social acceptance of members of a group emerged from the work of J. L. Moreno in the form of a process known as *sociometry*.

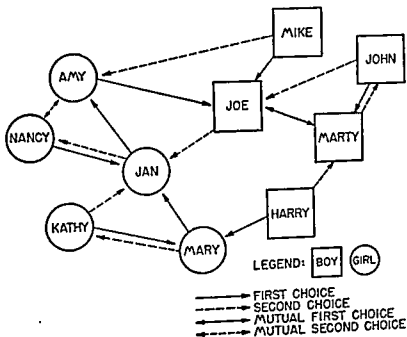
Simply stated, the use of the sociometric approach evolves around the construction and interpretation of a chart, or *sociogram*, which depicts graphically the interrelationships of children based on expressed preferences or choices. As a rule, a sociogram is based on the responses of children to a given question which presumably is (1) related to the operational functioning of the group and (2) suitably related to the maturity levels of the group involved. For example, a group at the primary level might be asked such a question as, "What boy or girl would you most like to have sit with you?"

A more advanced group of intermediate-grade pupils might be asked, "Whom would you most like to have work with you on your research project in social studies?"

After first, second, or even third choices have been submitted, the second step is the compilation of the responses in some systematic way. A common mean for doing this is the construction of a table on which the "choosers" are indicated along the left-hand vertical column of the chart and the "chosen" are named across the top of the chart in a horizontal sequence somewhat as follows:

	MIKE	JOE	JOHN	HARRY	MARTY	KATHY	MARY	NANCY	JAN	AMY
MIKE		1								2
JOE					1				2	
JOHN		2			1					
HARRY					2		1			
MARTY		1	2							
KATHY							1		2	
MARY						2			1	
NANCY									1	2
JAN								2		1
AMY		1						2		
First Choice		3			2		2		2	1
Second Choice		1	1		1	1		2	2	2

The data on the chart of a sociogram show members of the group symbolized by circles or squares, and their interrelationships by connecting lines. The illustration below gives a condensed sample of such a sociogram.



Certain specialized terminology has been developed in connection with the use of sociometric techniques. When children choose each other, "mutual choices" are indicated. Children chosen most often are known as "stars" while those not chosen at all are interpreted as "isolates." Other interrelationships, as shown on the sociogram, are referred to as "chains," "islands," or "triangles."

Obviously, the use of sociometry can yield valuable information to the creative and intelligent teacher. Sociometric techniques can be very helpful in analyzing group structure, in studying the relationship of sex or race to group structure, or in studying the possible effects of school, home, and community experiences on group structure.

The value of the sociogram as an instrument of diagnosis and appraisal is increased (1) when optimum rapport exists between the teacher and the group; (2) when care is exercised in gathering responses so that misleading responses are avoided as far as possible; (3) when conclusions are based only on repeated sociograms rather than on any single one; and (4) when careful and skillful interpretation is made of the data obtained.

Anecdotal Record. Another useful device in the process of appraising social development is the anecdotal record. Briefly stated, this is the written record of an incident involving a child. Of necessity, such accounts are usually brief and to the point, and must be objective and factual in nature to be useful in a cumulative way. Certain considerations related to the writing and use of anecdotal records are cited here in the hope that they may be useful to teachers who employ this technique for gathering information about children.

1. For maximum usefulness, anecdotal records should be kept over an extended period of time.
2. The record of an incident should be made as soon as possible after the incident has occurred.
3. Only significant behavior should be recorded when making anecdotal records.
4. In general, anecdotal records should contain only factual accounts of incidents. If the interpretation of the teacher is included, it should be separated from the factual part of the record and indicated as being the commentary of the teacher concerning the incident.
5. For practical reasons, anecdotal records must be concise and sometimes, in terms of clerical demands involved, must be limited to only part of a classroom group.
6. Anecdotal records are valuable only if they are interpreted carefully and competently.

ATTITUDES AND APPRECIATION

Growth in desirable attitudes and active appreciation seems to be one of the most difficult facets of a child's de-

velopment to appraise. First, the attitudes of a child are not necessarily reflected in some corresponding type of overt evidence. Second, attitudes and appreciations are of such intangible character that they are not easily subjected to the ordinary means of evaluation and measurement.

The above emphasis on the difficulty of determining growth in attitudes is not intended to imply that attempts to identify and appraise such growth are entirely fruitless. In fact, it seems quite important to utilize whatever means are available for evaluating these phases of growth in children. While there are personality scales and checklists available commercially which may be helpful in determining areas of strength and weakness in such matters as personal, social, and emotional adjustment, much of the evaluation of the total growth in the area of attitudes must be exercised on a subjective basis by the teacher. In doing so, the teacher should be guided by such evidences of growth as the following:

1. Increasing willingness to accept responsibility
2. Increasing willingness to accept the consequences of one's own acts
3. Increasing faithfulness in keeping promises and commitments
4. A developing sense of the personal rights of others
5. A developing sense of the property rights of others
6. A developing sense of duty in relation to personal and social obligations
7. A growing sense of fair play and honesty
8. A growing willingness to abide by the regulations of duly constituted authority
9. An increasing capacity for sustained effort in meeting responsibility
10. A growing sense of the importance of dependability and punctuality
11. A growing awareness of the value of idealism and ethics.

In addition to the development of attitudes such as those indicated above, the modern school is also dedicated to the task of helping boys and girls develop a taste and appreciation for the things of beauty in the world around them.

This objective is focused heavily on such areas of creative expression as literature, art, and music but it also has implications for many other activities found in better schools. The evaluation of growth of this type is based largely on an appraisal of the enjoyment that is derived from activities of an esthetic nature. In other words, the best evidence of growth in the appreciation of music is found in the eagerness of the child to listen to good music and the extent to which he participates voluntarily in musical activities. The same is generally true of the other creative arts.

EVALUATION AND THE TEACHER

Evaluation is an important element in the life of the teacher in two ways. On the one hand, one of the continuous tasks of the teacher as a professional practitioner is that of evaluating growth of pupils. On the other hand, the teacher is being subjected continuously to an evaluation of his own activities and successes.

EVALUATION BY THE TEACHER

Although it is an accepted premise that evaluation, to be most useful, is a co-operative process, it cannot be denied that the major responsibility for evaluation in the typical classroom rests with the teacher. Therefore, if the principles presented previously in this chapter are to be implemented successfully, the classroom teacher must bring certain competencies and understandings to the task. If the teacher is not so equipped, the supervisor should consider it his responsibility to assist the teacher in further professional development along these lines. In guiding and participating in the process of evaluating pupil growth, the teacher should first understand that evaluation is a three-phase process including establishment of purpose, measurement and recording of behavior or achievement, and appraisal of the behavior or achievement in terms of the formulated purposes. Then the teacher should be able to:

1. Approach the task of evaluation objectively
2. Understand various approaches and techniques which can be used for evaluative purposes
3. Select techniques which are suitable for the aspect of growth one wishes to measure
4. Administer standardized tests according to directions
5. Construct useful achievement tests with reasonable validity and reliability
6. Work with standardized materials
7. Establish the type of rapport with children that produces most accurate test results
8. Analyze results of interviews and observations in an objective manner
9. Make use of anecdotal records and other more informal devices for recording pupil behavior
10. Integrate the evaluative process into the total process of teaching
11. Make provisions for self-evaluation by pupils, to the extent permitted by the nature of the activity and the level of maturity of the learners.

EVALUATION OF TEACHING EFFECTIVENESS

Much effort has been expended for many years on attempts to discover systematic, valid means for analyzing and appraising teaching competence. Out of these efforts have come numerous statements of important teaching attributes, as well as a great number of rating scales and other devices for guiding observation of teaching. Events of very recent years seem to have given new impetus to efforts to design some suitable means for objectively discriminating between effective and ineffective teaching. In many instances, this impetus has emerged from the desire to formulate and operate some plan for merit classification of teachers.

Basically, there are five possible sources of judgments regarding the proficiency of the teacher. They are: (1) the judgments of administrators or supervisors who hold status positions and who presumably are responsible for the total instructional program of the school; (2) the judgments of peers in the teaching situation, or within the profession;

(3) the judgments of learners; (4) the judgments of parents and citizens; and (5) self-appraisal by the teacher himself. While the author wishes to emphasize the desirability of co-operative appraisal of teaching performance to the fullest possible extent, this emphasis is not intended to suggest that principals, and other appropriate status leaders, should abdicate the responsibility for the continuous evaluation of the quality of the instructional program and the contributions which each teacher is making to it.

Rating in some form has been used for many years as a supervisory device. The rating of teachers has been justified, in the main, on the basis that rating:

1. Serves as a basis for promotion of teachers
2. Provides a means for giving deserved recognition and status to deserving teachers
3. Provides a systematic basis for the administration of the salary schedule
4. Helps eliminate incompetent teachers
5. Provides an initial point for helping teachers improve in-service
6. Helps motivate teachers toward improvement of teaching practices
7. Provides a cumulative record of teaching performance which may have administrative value.

Certainly one could not argue much with the idea of the desirability of insuring that teachers are compensated well for meritorious teaching. However, many questions can be justifiably raised about many of the so-called merit rating plans which have been proposed. The difficulty of formulating and implementing such a plan arises, at least partially, from such factors as: (1) the formulation of agreed-upon criteria on which to base judgments concerning the quality of teaching; (2) the reconciliation of the idea of individual differences in teachers with the use of uniform standards of conduct and performance; (3) the determination of who is to make the necessary judgments in applying the criteria to individuals; (4) the elimination of bias, or the assumed presence of bias, from the judgments of persons applying the

criteria; (5) the reduction or classification of teaching activities into units of behavior which can be appraised with desired objectivity; (6) provision for producing and processing necessary documentary types of evidence required in many plans; and (7) the reconciliation of professional considerations with administrative aspects of the situation such as budgetary limitations and promotion quotas. The rating of teaching performance undoubtedly is useful when it is done judiciously and considered to be only *one* of an array of means used to gather data concerning teaching effectiveness.

Many modern educators have given support to the idea of broadening the base of judgment in the appraisal of the educational program quite beyond the scope of mechanical devices such as rating scales. In some instances, the formulation of school-community councils for this purpose has been proposed. When carried into effect such a program of appraisal has many implications for the evaluation of teaching effectiveness. In a bulletin of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development,⁴ seven broad principles are suggested to guide such a program of appraisal:

1. The process is a co-operative enterprise involving pupils, school people, and lay citizens.
2. The program of appraisal starts where teachers are and goes on from there.
3. Evaluation must be an integral part of the school community's program for improving the educational process, never an end-product nor imposed by administrative order.
4. The program of appraisal is continuous and comprehensive.
5. Methods and procedures for evaluating teaching services must be co-operatively and locally evolved, since objectives set by one group will not be exactly similar to those set by any other group.
6. Techniques must be developed for gathering evidence of individual growth and development.
7. An evaluative process makes intelligent use of objective teaching instruments which are available or can be constructed.

⁴ *Better Than Rating* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association of the United States, 1930).

Regardless of the person or agency who is charged with the responsibility for evaluating teaching effectiveness, the aim of such appraisal cannot be achieved without the formulation of criteria on which to judge teaching performance. This remains true even when teachers are engaging in self-evaluation.

Several comprehensive statements of teaching competence have emerged from studies and from workshops in teacher education in recent years. One list of desirable teaching attributes was presented in Chapter 1. A widely quoted statement is the California Statement of Teaching Competence⁵ which follows. This statement indicates that the competent teacher:

Provides for the learning of students

1. Uses psychological principles of learning
 - a. Uses effective and continuing motivation
 - (1) Recognizes and makes use of the interests, abilities, and needs of students
 - (2) Uses the experiences of students and draws upon life situations and the interests inherent in subject matter
 - b. Provides varied learning experiences
 - c. Uses a variety of teaching procedures, such as discussion, review, etc., effectively
 - d. Plans co-operatively with students
2. Uses principles of child growth and development in learning situations
 - a. Provides for differentiated activities and assignments to meet the needs and abilities of students
 - b. Knows the health (mental and physical) status of his students and adapts activities to their needs
3. Maintains an atmosphere in the classroom that is conducive to learning and is marked by a sense of balance between freedom and security
 - a. Maintains an effective working situation
 - b. Helps students increasingly to assume leadership and responsibility
 - c. Provides opportunities for students to co-operate and to

⁵ *Evaluation of Student Teaching* (Lockhaven, Pa.: Association for Student Teaching, 1949).

- exercise leadership in the activities of large and small groups
- d. Provides opportunity for expression of independent critical thought with emphasis on freedom of expression and open-mindedness
4. Plans effectively
- a. Aids the students to define worthwhile objectives for large units, daily class work, and special class activities
- b. Organizes his teaching well by choosing wisely learning experiences, subject-matter content, and materials of instruction
- c. Selects and uses a wide variety of materials of instruction (e.g., books, pamphlets, films, bulletin boards, flat pictures, radios, recordings, etc., . . .)
- d. Uses resources of the school library and the community
5. Uses varied teaching procedures
- a. Uses teaching procedures (such as group reporting, discussion, planning with pupils) designed to achieve desired purposes in teaching
- b. Builds effectively upon the students' participation in class activities
- c. Develops study skills of students
- d. Stimulates creative activities of students
- e. Aids the students to evaluate their own achievement
6. Uses diagnostic and remedial procedures effectively
- a. Is familiar with common diagnostic tests in his own and related fields
- b. Constructs, administers, and interprets diagnostic tests
- c. Uses other appropriate diagnostic procedures
- d. Plans and uses remedial procedures
7. Uses adequate procedures for evaluating the achievement of students
- a. Uses informal evaluation procedures (anecdotal record, interview, questionnaire) for collecting and interpreting needed information
- b. Uses standard achievement tests
- (1) Is familiar with the more common ones in his field
- (2) Selects, administers, and interprets the results of tests and uses them in planning
- c. Uses teacher-made tests
- (1) Constructs appropriate tests skillfully

- (2) Interprets the results and uses them in planning
- d. Keeps accurate and adequate records, e.g., case studies, cumulative records
- e. Makes effective reports to students and parents concerning the progress of students in their growth
- 8. Manages the class effectively
 - a. Plans satisfactory routine for handling of materials, equipment, and supplies
 - b. Uses own and pupils' time effectively
 - c. Is attentive to the physical well-being of students in such matters as heating, lighting, ventilation, and seating

Counsels and guides students wisely

- 1. Uses sound psychological principles concerning the growth and development of children in guiding individuals and groups
 - a. Maintains objectivity when dealing with behavior that is aggressive and abnormal
 - b. Is sympathetic with and sensitive to students' personal and social problems as well as their academic needs
 - c. Makes adjustments in the curriculum and other requirements in light of pupils' needs
 - d. Secures sufficient rapport with students so that they come voluntarily for counsel
- 2. Maintains effective relationships with parents
 - a. Explains the needs, abilities, interests, and problems of the students to their parents
 - b. Obtains co-operation from parents in helping students with their problems
- 3. Collects and uses significant counseling data
 - a. Administers aptitude and intelligence tests
 - b. Interprets the results of such tests
 - c. Uses results collected in counseling with students
 - d. Keeps research suitable for guidance
- 4. Uses suitable counseling procedures
- 5. Maintains appropriate relations with guidance specialists, recognizing their role, and the limitations of his own skill and ability

Aids students to understand and appreciate our cultural heritage

- 1. Organizes the classroom for effective democratic living
- 2. Directs individuals and groups to significant life applications of classroom learnings

- a. Uses subject fields to develop understanding of social, economic, and political problems
- b. Develops an understanding of wide significance of various fields of subject matter
- 3. Draws on his own background of experience to elicit the cultural growth of individuals and groups
- 4. Helps students to know and to apply in their daily lives the democratic principles which are rooted deep in our historical development

Participates effectively in the activities of the school

- 1. Plans co-operatively the means of achieving educational objectives
 - a. Shares effectively in curricular revision and is able to evaluate progress toward attaining educational objectives
 - (1) Defines objectives clearly
 - (2) Collects data efficiently and draws appropriate conclusions from them
 - (3) Employs appropriate remedial procedures
 - b. Shows flexibility in modifying his plans and procedures to fit with those of the entire school
- 2. Assumes his share of the responsibility for school activities
 - a. Carries out effectively the administrative responsibilities delegated to him
 - b. Participates in planning and administering extracurricular activities
- 3. Maintains harmonious personal relations with his colleagues

Assists in maintaining good relations between the school and the rest of the community

- 1. Acquaints himself with available community resources and uses them in classroom activities
- 2. Obtains the co-operation of parents in school activities
- 3. Aids in defining and solving community problems
 - a. Helps in defining community problems and in developing awareness of them in students and parents
 - b. Draws on available and appropriate resources within the school in attacking community problems
- 4. Takes part in community affairs and projects
- 5. Observes professional ethics in discussing school problems, particularly with lay persons

Works on a professional level

1. Gives evidence of the social importance of the profession to parents, students, and other members of the profession
2. Adheres to a professional code of ethics
3. Contributes to the profession by membership in professional organizations and participation in their activities
4. Assumes responsibility for his own professional growth by planning an appropriate program for professional betterment
 - a. Continues professional study through courses, lectures, institutes, professional reading, and other activities
5. Aids in supervising student teachers and in the orientation and induction of beginning teachers

SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVING UNDERSTANDING OF EVALUATIVE PROCESSES

1. Obtain and examine copies of commonly used standardized tests of intelligence and achievement.
2. Obtain and read some good book on educational tests and measurements in the elementary school.
3. Try to arrange an interview with a clinician who frequently utilizes projective techniques in making evaluative diagnoses.
4. Find out the principles of sound test-construction and try to apply them in formulating several types of test items in a chosen area of interest.
5. Collect several sets of criteria used for evaluating teaching effectiveness. These may be obtained from the literature or from selected school systems.
6. Consult with a supervisor and teachers from a school system which has formulated a definite plan for merit rating of teaching performance. Try to determine what they believe to be its strengths and weaknesses.
7. Develop a plan for a sound testing-program in the elementary school in terms of the school with which you are most familiar

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Chapter 7

Improvement Function of Supervision

When a society ceases to improve, it usually deteriorates. The same observation can be made concerning education. Since the way of life in the United States is so closely related to the level of enlightenment of the citizenry, the quality of education determines, to a large degree, the quality of the society. It is no surprise, then, that thoughtful persons, in and out of the profession, are actively aware of the imperative need for continuous improvement in education. Aside from what an improving educational program does for individuals, it is virtually essential to a guaranteed perpetuation of a way of life based on the will of a self-governing people.

Educators and laymen alike can be justifiably proud of the accomplishments of the American public schools. From an early beginning when schools were operated for the benefit of a relatively few persons, they have developed into a vital agency of society which touches the lives of virtually every child in any given community. The extremely narrow curriculum of the 3 R's, which characterized early schools of this country, has been broadened to include many aspects of learning and living. Education for all American children and youth, though not completely accomplished in a strictly literal sense, has become more of a reality than a mere dream. Along with the expansion of education in terms of the size of the population served and the scope of the curriculum,

recent decades have also brought noteworthy improvement in school facilities and teaching theory and practice. Educational research in such fields as the psychology of learning and child development has had its effect on the planning, organization, and evaluation of learning experiences of children of elementary-school age.

Educational improvement to date, though commendable, has been gradual and often slow in coming. While the improvement experienced through the years can be a source of pride to thoughtful citizens and professional leaders in education, its extent does not justify an attitude of smugness toward the necessity for further improvement in many aspects of educational endeavor.

Progress in refining and improving the quality of educational practice is the result of both creative professional thought and cumulative experience. In the main, such progress is stimulated by the same types of activities that promote advancement in other areas of human endeavor. This chapter is concerned with the basic principles, the sources of guidance, and the kinds of conditions which are related to the general improvement of the elementary school program. Specific aspects of improvement, along with appropriate supervisory techniques, are discussed in some detail in later chapters.

BASIC PRINCIPLES RELATED TO EDUCATIONAL IMPROVEMENT

It is impossible to construct precise blueprints for improvement in education in the same manner one would plan to remodel a house. A first difficulty is that improvement in education often requires change in the attitudes and competency of people. Human beings, because they are human, are not wholly predictable and, furthermore, are subject to the influences of tradition and individual interest which contribute to resistance to change. Improvement, therefore, in any given situation, is somewhat dependent upon the attitudes and potentials of the people involved in that particular situation.

A second difficulty which frustrates attempts to formulate specific plans for improvement which can be universally applicable arises from the fact that improvement must always begin at the existing level of effort. Quite obviously, different school systems, and the teachers within each system, are operating at varying levels of proficiency and are using greatly diversified methods and practices to accomplish their ends.

In spite of the undesirability, if not impossibility, of attempting to chart any definite, uniform plan for improving instructional programs, certain considerations seem to be common to educational improvement generally, and are usually reflected in constructive, localized efforts toward program improvement. It may be helpful, therefore, to suggest at this point some of the principles which appear to be most closely related to educational improvement. It is hoped that they may serve as a theoretical guide for persons engaged directly in activities designed for the improvement of educational understanding and practice.

Improvement always involves change. Most human behavior and effort is subject to cause-and-effect relationships. Improved results from any effort or activity usually come through a modification of the situation or process which produces the results. Willingness to change, or to accept change, is one of the basic requisites for those who seek improvement.

While change is usually essential to improvement, improvement does not necessarily result from change. In other words, change, to lead to improvement, must be in a constructive direction and consistent with basic values and established goals. Furthermore, since social or educational change is based largely on changes in people, procedures for change should always be in accord with accepted principles of human motivation and should always operate within the ethical and legal controls of a situation.

Many factors affect the degree and rapidity of social change. Some of these are ease of interaction and communication, cultural groupings, religious influences, economic de-

velopments, and type of leadership. Certainly, it is desirable for leaders in education to identify and study the relationships of these and other factors to the process of improvement in education.

Improvement usually involves desire for betterment. Presumably, all the efforts of mankind are motivated basically by the hope of some resulting benefit. Though improvement may be dependent upon legislation and leadership in many ways, it is virtually impossible to legislate or impose improved conditions on people unless they first have a desire for improvement. A certain degree of contentment with one's lot may be commendable, but complete satisfaction with, and smugness about, one's efforts may be a genuine deterrent to further progress. This observation can be as suitably applied to the group efforts of a staff as to the productivity of any individual.

The desire for change or improvement often is based on a deeper understanding or an extended knowledge of educational aims and processes. A person cannot want that of which he is completely unaware. This observation has rather direct implications for the work of the supervisor in providing opportunities for teachers to come into contact with ideas and practices which broaden the horizons of their own concepts and efforts.

Improvement usually involves projected theory. A theory, recognized or otherwise, always precedes action. Presumably, there is always a reason for one behaving as he does, and a purpose which motivates one to plan and carry plans into action. Undoubtedly, vitally useful developments and inventions in many fields of human endeavor were initiated as conjecture which subsequently was formulated into a reasoned theory that served as the basis for the ultimate achievement. Ideas are vital to progress in any area of productivity. Educational improvement is stimulated by a climate in which ideas are encouraged, considered, and, of course, continuously subjected to the proving ground of actual experimental practice.

It should be emphasized at this point that educational the-

ory and practice are closely related and not the mutually exclusive forces they are sometimes considered to be by shallow-sighted educators. Actually, theory and practice are inseparable aspects of the educational process, being interdependent factors which support each other within the framework of the total enterprise. Theory supplies direction and stimulation for effort, while practice tends to provide the means for proving the soundness of the theory or for refining it in terms of expedient and practical considerations.

Improvement usually involves research and experimentation. Research has been an important factor in the change that has occurred in many facets of our lives. Industrial research has resulted in the invention and improvement of numerous devices for adding enjoyment and convenience to daily living. In addition, production itself has been greatly increased through research into the factors which motivate and facilitate human productivity. Similarly, research in the field of medicine has resulted in marked improvement in medical practice and in remarkable progress toward identifying the causes of, and providing the proper treatment for, the more destructive diseases which plague the current generation.

While research in the social sciences is hampered by some difficulties not characteristic of the physical sciences, much progress is being made toward more and better research into human behavior and related fields. Better controls are being provided for educational research and refined statistical means for treatment and comparison of data are being developed. Certainly, a combination of the benefits to be derived from more formalized and controlled research and from the action research being encouraged in many school systems should provide increasingly sound directions for improving educational methodology.

The important relationship of research to education finds expression in many ways. The willingness of a school staff, individually and collectively, to discover and utilize the findings of valid research, the desire to try new ideas in the classroom, and the efforts of the administrator or supervisor to

create a climate of research-mindedness are all contributing factors to the process of improvement through research.

Improvement usually involves intelligent modification of methodology. Methodology is always a means to an end. No method is good in itself; it is desirable only to the extent that it produces desired results. The belief that only one method of teaching will produce desirable results is sometimes a deterrent to improved practice. Teachers often cling tenaciously to a particular traditional approach to teaching long after its comparative effectiveness has been disproved. Unfortunately, supervisors themselves sometimes place an undue emphasis on conformity to a given teaching method rather than encouraging and helping teachers to discover and develop more efficient procedures.

Basically, modification of methodology is brought about in one or more of three ways: (1) the adoption of a proposed method assumed to be desirable because it has worked well in another situation; (2) the adaptation of the method of another to the conditions of one's own situation; and (3) the development of a new method or approach based on an hypothesis concerning its possible value. Perhaps it is needless to state that the first of these means is fraught with considerable danger unless the two situations are highly comparable in nature. The third approach, of course, is usually indicative of considerable professional insight and maturity. From a supervisory standpoint, it seems desirable to work with a staff in formulating a general philosophy of teaching and learning, establishing sound principles to serve as a framework for the instructional program, and then to encourage, within this framework, a high degree of individual initiative and creative effort on the part of teachers. This can be done effectively only in an atmosphere of co-operation and security.

Improvement usually involves the sharing of ideas and the pooling of discoveries. Education is an extremely complex enterprise, subject to the influences of many varied and variable forces. Teaching and learning, as the functional nucleus of the total educational process, are affected by numerous

and intricate considerations. Even though he tried valiantly, no one person ever could hope to accumulate a knowledge of all the beneficial ideas emanating from educational research or contained in the literature in education and other related fields. This obviously suggests, then, the desirability of providing for the continuous interchange of ideas among members of a staff and, for that matter, among members of the profession at large.

Professional interaction and communication of staff members can also contribute to educational improvement through the results of the process itself. Through considering, comparing, or even challenging the ideas of each other, the members of a group may provide a kind of stimulation to further effort as well as furnish the basis for refinement of ideas presented.

Several states and many local school systems have made conscious efforts to provide a definite means whereby the successful practices of individual teachers might be shared with others. This has been done effectively through news-sheets, supervisory letters, and local seminars and forums at which teachers, often on a rotating basis, present ideas or demonstrate methods which they have found to be unusually successful. The important consideration in such procedures is to operate in such a manner that freedom of expression is encouraged without allowing the sharing process to come under the undue domination of strong-willed or fanatically inclined members of the group.

Improvement usually involves all factors of a teaching-learning situation. Many components of the educational process are interrelated. In fact, this relationship is such that it is almost impossible to change one of the primary facets of the teaching-learning situation without affecting others. For example, change in curricular emphasis almost invariably involves a corresponding consideration of teaching methodology, instructional materials, evaluative procedures, and promotional policies. While it often may be wise to isolate some area of the curriculum, or some aspect of the school program, for the purpose of intensive study and

analysis, it should be recognized, even then, that resulting improvement must come as an outcome of the successful integration of better *specific procedures into the total program* of the school on a well-co-ordinated basis. One of the most reliable evidences of effective group effort in a school is the extent to which a sound philosophy of education is consistently reflected in the various aspects of the school procedure and among the teachers who constitute the staff.

Improvement usually proceeds through logical stages. Few individual or professional goals are achieved as a result of a single, isolated effort. Most worthy objectives require some type of prolonged, sequential activity. Improved speech patterns are not achieved overnight. Social understanding and skills come after years of careful nurture and development. Proficiency in reading or mathematics never can be accomplished other than through a sustained effort involving graduated stages of growth and learning. Similarly, professional improvement does not result from attempts to move from a state of little or no proficiency to that of ideal educational practice in one concentrated step. As in other areas of human effort, improvement must proceed through developmental stages each of which is built somewhat upon the preceding one. This has many implications, of course, for supervisory practice.

Improvement may be expressed in both immediate and long-range outcomes. Organized improvement programs such as those related to curriculum study and revision usually emerge from some recognized and relatively expedient need and are usually carried out in the hope of definite, foreseeable results. One of the things, however, which makes it extremely difficult to ascribe value to educational activities is our general inability to evaluate in terms of intangible and long-range objectives and outcomes. While it is wholly desirable, therefore, to sense and work for immediate improvement in the conditions which affect teaching and learning, it may be fallacious to assume that the absence of immediate, recognizable outcomes of changed procedure means that the change in procedure is not worthwhile.

Sometimes, considerable lapse of time is required to determine the actual validity of an educational practice.

Improvement is closely related to effective and continuous evaluation. Evaluation is the primary basis for improvement in education. Evaluation is necessary both as a means for giving direction to professional efforts toward improvement, and as a process which identifies the focal points around which such efforts can yield the highest professional dividends in terms of improvement. Unfortunately, many of the systematic attempts to evaluate school programs are conceived under the pressures of expediency and executed chiefly on a purely periodic basis. If evaluation is to become an integral part of the program which a staff hopes to improve steadily and continuously, then evaluative analyses must be made and evaluative judgments exercised in relation to the on-going activities and outcomes of the school from day to day and from year to year.

SOURCES OF GUIDANCE IN EDUCATIONAL IMPROVEMENT

Improvement in education is closely related to social change. The desire for change, of course, is not commendable in itself. It may be merely an expression of a restless spirit, or of unstable personality. On the other hand, change may be, and often is, the forerunner of progress. In order to be a basic ingredient of progress, change cannot be initiated on the basis of whim or impulse. It must emerge from persisting values or from the thoughtful analysis of forces and developments which have a valid relationship to social progress. At least seven such sources merit careful consideration by the educational leader as he seeks to discover justifiable bases for activities designed for educational improvement: (1) analysis of the past and the experiences of the past; (2) analysis of cultural values; (3) analysis of democratic tenets and commitments; (4) analysis of trends; (5) analysis of research; (6) adaptation of useful ideas and practices from other fields; and (7) creative study and intelligent projection.

ANALYSIS OF THE PAST

It has been stated in many ways, and by many people, that the best single basis for predicting the future is an analysis of the past. One might go a bit further and suggest that one of the important ways of working toward an improved future is to attempt to identify the successes and failures of the past and modify our behavior accordingly. This appears to be a principle of operation so simple and obvious that it is either largely overlooked or suspect. Nevertheless, experience continues to be a good teacher if one is inclined to analyze it carefully and to scrutinize it for clues to desirable change.

The analysis of human experience, when approached with a reasonable degree of objectivity, yields valuable dividends which are both interesting and useful to all who are motivated by a concern for human progress. Some of the outcomes which accrue from a careful examination of civilization form the basis for many philosophical concerns and social movements. Certainly, current practices in education frequently reflect the nature of the historical development of education in this country, and throughout the world. Primarily, three major purposes are served by the analysis of past experience. They are: (1) to identify and build upon the strengths which have characterized past experiences; (2) to identify and eliminate, as far as possible, the elements of weakness and futility which have characterized past experience; and (3) to define and perpetuate the common thread or core of values around which the bases for successful living have tended to evolve. These purposes may be directly applied to the field of education and to the professional insight and activity of those charged with responsibility for its improvement.

ANALYSIS OF CULTURAL VALUES

The values which have given direction to the founding of our country, and its subsequent remarkable development into a major world power, have grown out of a functional

merging or a motivating spirit of idealism with a sense of practicability and realism. Incompatible as these may seem philosophically, they have combined in our people in such a manner as to contribute to the creation of a political system generally consistent with the basic tenets of democracy, to the sparking of the development of a vast economic and industrial system, to the guarantee of religious freedom, and to the development of a great experiment in education for all to a point of justifiable pride. Never-failing reference to the ideals of our way of life, and continuous attention to the elements of our culture which seem to represent the most vital ingredients of the good life for the most people, continue to be important foundations upon which to build an even better civilization. Certainly, educators cannot afford to ignore these considerations in their quest for guidelines to educational progress.

ANALYSIS OF DEMOCRATIC TENETS

Closely related to a concern for cultural values is the underlying importance of certain tenets associated with the democratic way of life. A system of government based on principles of human rights and welfare cannot consistently support, or even tolerate, a system of education which ignores these principles. Such considerations as respect for the individual, and the protection of his rights as an individual, are basic to the American way of life. It is essential, then, that schools reflect the recognition of this tenet both in the processes it employs in teaching and learning and in the attitudes and behavior it seeks to develop in the children who attend school. The same relationship exists, of course, with regard to other democratic principles. These are some principles which give sense of direction to educational effort.

1. The common good should serve as the primary group aim.
2. Final authority rests with the people being governed.
3. Freedom of expression is essential to the establishment of self-government.

4. The concept of the worth of persons is basic to democratic living.
5. Persons shall not be penalized for inherent characteristics which make them different from others.
6. All rights carry corresponding responsibilities.

These and many other concepts of the democratic process have genuine meaning for educational procedure and for the continuous effort to improve the curriculum of the school.

ANALYSIS OF TRENDS

Education has both a current and preparatory function. In an earlier day, much emphasis was placed on the function of schools in preparing learners for specific vocational pursuits or for higher units of the educational ladder. In colonial times, for instance, one of the main purposes of schools was to help prepare the clergy. Throughout the years, secondary schools have given considerable attention to college preparatory functions and courses, and, in a similar manner, it has often been assumed that one of the primary obligations of the elementary school is to equip children for pursuing secondary school curricula successfully. Admittedly, the aim of providing learning experiences that will give reasonable assurance of successful achievement during future years of schooling is a commendable one and should not, therefore, be ignored in the process of developing and evaluating school programs. Real benefit to education, however, resulted from the philosophy and teachings of such educational leaders as John Dewey and William Kilpatrick who emphasized the importance of an educational program oriented and geared to current living. The program of the modern elementary school reflects the recognition and influence of this philosophy in its emphasis on the experience of the learner and the use of the community as a laboratory of learning resources.

As indicated above, the unquestioned value of the emphasis on problems of current living as a basis for learning experience does not negate the desirability of an educational program which will provide children and youth with the attitudes, understanding, and skills necessary for a satisfying

and productive adulthood. The difficulty arises, of course, from our inability, in a rapidly changing society, to predict in advance the needs of the current generation when they reach adulthood.

The thoughtful educator does not ignore the pressures of the present, the experiences of the past, or the demands of the future, as far as they can be determined. The line of developments and trends which reaches out from the past into the present, when analyzed carefully, provides some basis for predicting future needs. Some of the developments which have implications for education are these:

1. The quest of the people for freedom of action. This can be noted in the efforts of men and nations to free themselves from the control of others.
2. The changing pattern of family life. Employment of women outside the home and the shifting of the source of such things as food, clothing, and entertainment away from the home have contributed to new modes of living.
3. Great technological advancements. The invention of added means for more convenient and efficient living has affected the lives of people immeasurably. The advent of automation promises to have even greater influences on modes of working and living in the future.
4. The mobility of the population. People are moving about as never before and it is expected that this trend will accelerate with the coming years. Improved means of travel are having remarkable effects on the living habits of the typical family.
5. A shortening work week. Trends indicate that the work week of the majority of workers in this country will be steadily reduced in length. This means additional time for independent activity of some type.
6. A changing social structure. The range in the standard of living has been generally reduced in recent years and there is evidence to indicate that this trend will continue. Unskilled workers, in the main, are being paid more and are enjoying more of the benefits of social and cultural opportunities previously reserved for persons with higher socioeconomic status.
7. The do-it-yourself trend. The popularity of the do-it-your-

self idea has brought new interests and developments to the pattern of family life. Services previously performed by vocational specialists are being done by members of the family, many times on a semi-hobby basis.

8. The development of world-wide mass communication. New opportunities and new problems have been created by the widespread development of new forms of mass communication. There is strong reason to believe that the startling achievements in the use of television, radar, and many other forms of communication, are mere indications of more remarkable developments in the future.
9. The expansion of frontiers. Early men spent their lives within the bounds of a relatively small geographical area, but the search for better living conditions and the intellectual curiosity of mankind have promoted a continuous extension of frontiers. After exploring the mysteries of lands beyond the waters, it was quite natural for man to turn his attention to the air and, ultimately, to interplanetary space. Further dramatic progress in this area seems certain.
10. The search for ethical and social bases for human understanding and interaction. As barriers separating peoples of the world have been reduced through international travel and interaction, the necessity for discovering ways of living together profitably and peacefully has been accentuated. While the political and military aspects of international relationships receive relatively greater publicity and attention, it must be recognized that the problem of international relations is one which depends heavily on the attitudes, motives, and resources of people. As such, it has many implications for education.

EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

Much of the improvement in education in the United States during the twentieth century has been attributable to the results of educational research. Though the finger of criticism has been occasionally pointed at educational researchers for their inability to control the numerous and complex variables related to educational performance, such researchers, as a whole, have made many concrete and valuable contributions to the fund of professional knowledge

needed for continuous improvement. It is true, of course, that learning and teaching cannot easily be reduced to discrete elements and clear-cut steps which characterize experimentation in such fields as that of the physical sciences. But sufficient improvement has been made in research and statistical techniques during the last half-century, however, to permit competent educators to produce a considerable and increasing amount of valid research into various aspects of education.

Educational research has led the way to improvement in many facets of the educational program. The advent and development of standardized measurement early in the century had marked ramifications for school and classroom organization and practice. The testing of mental ability, along with experimentation dealing with the learning process, led to numerous new efforts to provide for individual differences in children. In some instances, the organization of the school program was modified to such an extent that they became known as definite plans. The Winnetka and Dalton Plans, among others, were examples of such departures from traditional classroom organization.

Research into particular school subjects has produced new and better methods of teaching. This has been particularly true in the field of reading, an area in which intensive research has been carried on. Such research also has had ramifications for general curriculum study and development. In recent years, the impetus for curriculum research has gone far beyond the interest of the educational expert and is being reflected in *action research* initiated and developed at the local school level.

Research data in some areas of education are more extensive than in others, and better methods have been discovered for doing research in some areas than in others. In a publication of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, McKim's statements¹ not only analyze and

¹ Margaret G. McKim, "Curriculum Research In Historical Perspective," in *Research for Curriculum Improvement* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association of the United States, 1957), pp. 34-35.

summarize the focal points of research to date, but also indicate areas of need for future research leading to improvement. According to her:

1. We have developed more effective research techniques for studying social and economic trends than we have research techniques for the derivation and validation of values.
2. We have clearer analyses of the social and economic trends in our society than we have of our value systems.
3. We have more analyses of aspects of our society from specific disciplines than we have interdisciplinary studies exploring the implications of such findings for human living.
4. We know more about trends in our society than we do about the implications of those trends in terms of children and youth growing up in that society.
5. We know more about norms for separate aspects of development than we do about the interrelationships among these aspects of development in the growing organism.
6. We have more techniques for studying the learner in the light of norms and averages than we have techniques for studying him in the light of his goals and his concepts of himself.
7. We know more about learners as individuals than we do about the interrelationships among learners in groups.
8. We know more about learners' interests than we do about day-to-day problems of living they are trying to handle.
9. We know more about general processes of maturation than we do about the developmental tasks which each new stage of maturity brings.
10. We know more about how to organize a classroom or school for effective learning than we do about how to decide what should be taught.
11. We know more about how to develop skills such as reading and handwriting, and about how to teach facts, than we do about how to develop concepts or attitudes.
12. We know more about how to study the outcome of a child's work than we do about how to study the processes by which he works—the steps he takes in solving an arithmetic problem, the way he reasons in drawing conclusions.
13. We have more techniques for evaluating growth in skills and knowledge than we have techniques for evaluating growth in such areas as attitudes and feelings.
14. We know more about planning for the effective learning of children and youth than we do about planning for the effective learning of those who are to teach them.

15. We know more about achieving effective interpersonal relations in the classroom than we do about achieving effective interpersonal relations in the faculty of a whole school system.

ADAPTATION OF FINDINGS IN OTHER FIELDS

Educators can gain some of their sense of direction for educational improvement from areas and concerns outside the field of education proper. Continuous discovery of new insights into old problems, as well as the appearance of new concerns, lends impetus to educational effort. Virtually all areas of human experience might be included in a comprehensive listing of emerging concerns which have implications for education. Perhaps it is sufficient here, however, to discuss briefly a few illustrative examples of such concerns.

One of the persisting problems of mankind is that of human relations. Much of the distress and misery of the world has arisen out of conflicts of some type among human beings. This has been a problem which has had implications for family and community life, industrial productivity, and international relationships, as well as many other situations which involve human interaction. In recent years, considerable attention has been given to the study of conditions which promote, or deter, favorable human relations. An investigation into these findings, such as those emanating from the field of personnel work and guidance, will reveal rather concrete implications for education and the educational program.

The field of psychology has yielded much valuable information which can be applied to educational practice. For example, studies into human motivation provide very definite considerations for the curriculum and its organization. Studies of mental health also provide implications for facets of school practice such as teacher-pupil relationships, curriculum adjustment, marks and marking, and pupil control and regulation. The relationship of physical and emotional well-being to intellectual performance is another area of discovery of concern to thoughtful educators.

Many educational benefits may be derived from socio-

logical studies and literature. Such matters as population trends, shifting social structures, changing family patterns, increase in juvenile delinquency, and factors of social conflict all have some relationship to the nature and directions which should characterize educational programs.

A problem of considerable concern to educators and laymen alike is that of the conservation of resources. The preservation of our productive soil from the ravages of wind and water has become a national problem. Many of our forests and mineral deposits are threatened with serious depletion if present trends continue. Obviously, this problem is one of education, and must be recognized by educators who shape programs of the future.

CREATIVE ENDEAVORS

In the final analysis, the designing of educational programs is largely a philosophic phenomenon. While it is true, of course, that scientific processes are utilized in many ways in the educational process, yet the quality of the curriculum, and the success of its implementation, rest heavily on the subjective judgments of people. The attitudes, understanding, and imagination of legislators, administrators, supervisors, teachers, curriculum specialists, school board members, pupils and textbook writers, among others, may substantially affect the nature and effectiveness of the school program, and may facilitate or deter educational improvement.

Educational change, as implied above, cannot proceed faster nor bring greater educational benefits than the scope and depth of educational thought can intelligently justify. The inertia of educators, themselves, sometimes has been a deterrent to improvement. The willingness to examine ideas, the encouragement of professional imagination, and the ability to relate abstract values to tangible experience, bear a genuine relationship to improvement. Though there are many sources of guidance for those charged with designing effective programs of education, none can ever replace the

need for administrators, supervisors, teachers, and citizens to think and work creatively together.

SUPERVISORY AVENUES TO EDUCATIONAL IMPROVEMENT

The preceding sections of this chapter have been devoted to some of the basic principles and considerations underlying educational improvement. Since the primary function of modern supervision is that of creating conditions and stimulating efforts that contribute to more effective teaching and learning, it seems suitable to list and briefly discuss some of the more specific functional approaches to improvement through supervision. In later chapters, the more detailed means of implementing some of these supervisory aims will be presented.

From the many possible avenues to improvement of the teaching-learning situation through supervisory activity, the following seem to have unusual professional promise:

1. Improving the climate of the school
2. Clarifying the goals of the instructional program
3. Improving the tools of instruction
4. Improving the morale of teachers and learners
5. Broadening the educational horizons of the staff
6. Facilitating easy communication
7. Encouraging co-operative effort
8. Encouraging educational experimentation
9. Recognizing increments of improvement
10. Utilizing partial improvements as springboards to greater progress
11. Translating sound theories of learning into practice
12. Encouraging an attitude of continuous evaluation.

IMPROVING THE EDUCATIONAL CLIMATE

The atmosphere surrounding the teaching-learning situation can be affected in many different ways. A favorable working climate requires careful attention to all aspects of the educational environment. Its quality is determined by physical factors, social considerations, and factors related to

emotional stability, as well as by the school philosophy and the nature of the curriculum. Specifically, the educational climate may be improved through attention to such matters as:

1. Proper heating, lighting, and ventilation
2. Suitability and flexibility of seating arrangements for children
3. Sufficient and suitable space for the varied types of activity involved in the modern educational program
4. Adequacy of instructional materials and materials for independent use by children
5. Provisions for the health and safety of children
6. Development of attitudes of maximum self-direction on the part of learners and teachers
7. A curriculum adjusted to the needs and abilities of the children of the school
8. The development of attitudes of security on the part of staff and learners
9. Adequate school plant and facilities, including play facilities and lunchroom.

CLARIFYING THE GOALS

Purposeful activity is generally assumed to be more productive than nonpurposeful activity. Effort which is guided by the recognition and clear understanding of well-defined aims, quite naturally can be expected to yield better results with relatively less expenditure of human energy. This is particularly true in the field of education. The school program is, or at least should be, guided by several types of purposes. They are general or universal, cultural or regional, local or community, school, teacher, and pupil.

One of the channels of supervisory activity which is likely to be most productive is that of assisting pupils and teachers, as well as others, in recognizing more clearly the aims which guide teaching and learning effort.

IMPROVING THE TOOLS

Teaching consists largely of the interactive relationship of teacher and learner. However, teaching can be greatly fa-

cilitated by expanding and refining the resources of the teacher. The teacher's effectiveness, and indirectly the possibilities for learning, can be improved by such practice as:

1. Providing for participation of teachers in the selection of teaching materials
2. Making administrative arrangements for easy distribution and sharing of materials
3. Providing for easy access to, and use of, audio-visual equipment
4. Encouraging the use of suitable community resources
5. Providing for in-service opportunities for professional growth
6. Providing assistance in the development of teacher-made materials
7. Making adequate provision for reference and library materials
8. Developing the means for sharing ideas and methods of teachers.

Anything the supervisor can do to improve the methodology of the teacher or to provide the media for sound instruction is a vital part of his supervisory function.

IMPROVING THE MORALE

Human beings appear to act as much on the basis of emotions as in terms of intellect. The spirit in which a person attacks his work and responsibilities largely determines the results of his activity. Morale is quite closely related to productivity in many areas of human experience. Measures which result in a high degree of morale on the part of teachers and learners often contribute to corresponding improvement in the outcomes of teaching and learning activities. Some of the basic conditions for optimum professional relationships in the school are described elsewhere in this book. Briefly stated, the following represent some of the considerations which are essential to morale:

1. Recognition for work well done
2. Credit for ideas adopted and used by others
3. Avoidance of favoritism or unwarranted concessions
4. Definition of responsibility for work to be done

5. Avoidance of severe or unjust criticism
6. Favorable working and living conditions.

BROADENING THE HORIZONS

Professional leadership and in-service processes which help push back the horizons of educational vision often give needed impetus to study programs in such areas as curriculum improvement. Helping teachers achieve a more comprehensive view of the broader implications of the school program, the findings of current research, the implications of economic and social developments of this age, and of possible refinement in teaching procedures, is one of the challenging tasks of the supervisor. In the midst of a world replete with possibilities for personal growth and professional development, many opportunities for needed broadening of educational perspective present themselves. The alert supervisor will seek ways to create both an awareness of and an interest in such opportunities which confront teachers.

FACILITATING COMMUNICATION

Professional interaction requires effective communication. Easy communication is essential to the success of teaching and supervision. The group process is almost wholly dependent on effective communication for any positive results which it may produce. Obviously, administrative practices involving oral and written communications among school personnel have their effect on the facility with which the school program is operated. However, the problem of communication goes a bit further in its ramifications. It also involves the establishment of common areas of understanding and of interest as a basis for the interchange of ideas among members of the school staff. This has implications for the philosophy of the school and for the opportunities provided within the school for group discussion and consideration of issues and problems which arise.

Facility in communication is essential at the classroom

level and in all the processes of professional interaction usually associated with the group approach to program improvement. The techniques of supervision should employ, utilize, and encourage forms of communication which are positive, clear, and effective.

ENCOURAGING CO-OPERATIVE EFFORT

The various components of the educational program are so interrelated that improvement usually involves much more than individual efforts. Means must be devised for productive group attack on problems of general concern. There are many ways in which cooperative effort will yield fruitful results. Some of them are noted here:

1. The planning and organization for curriculum study
2. The planning and organization of study groups of parents and teachers
3. The planning and organization of faculty meetings
4. The interpretation and use of test results in the school
5. The establishment and operation of special interest groups
6. The planning for new or remodeled school facilities
7. The planning of special school-community events.

Both the democratic philosophy and the scientific attitude are closely affiliated with the willingness to seek new and more effective solutions to problems through group effort. At the local school level, improvement is usually preceded and accompanied by professional attitudes which encourage experimental activity. The climate of the modern elementary school is such that teachers and learners are stimulated to find answers to problems through the discovery method. While children should be protected from hazardous experimentation based on the impulse of an ill-informed or superficial teacher, children actually profit from school programs in situations where sound and continuous experimentation is occurring. This is to suggest that the spirit of experimentation and creative teaching often are found in the same person.

One of the ways in which a supervisor can render profes-

sional service is by providing the means whereby individual and group research may be facilitated and the results of it shared among teachers of a school system, or even among members of the profession as a whole.

RECOGNIZING GROWTH INCREMENTS

As is true of other areas of human experience, perfection will never be achieved in education. It is hoped that the educational profession will be dedicated to improvement wherever such improvement can be achieved. Refinement of a great social enterprise such as education, however, is a deliberate and slow process, subject to such deterrents as the force of tradition, human apathy, and lack of needed support. It is too much to expect, therefore, that dramatic improvement should always suddenly result from professional leadership activities, however sound they may be. It is more realistic to assume that improvement comes in reasonably small increments and from varying types of activities such as legislative advancements, research findings, or professional leadership in operation at the local level or within the profession.

Little is accomplished from the recognition of growth increments unless it is followed by subsequent efforts to capitalize further on the pathways to progress it has opened. If teachers can be brought to see the actual results of applying new findings to a classroom situation, they can be encouraged to participate in further efforts to improve the school program.

TRANSLATING PRINCIPLES INTO PRACTICE

One of the chief deterrents to educational progress is the inability of many administrators, supervisors, and teachers to sense the relationship between a theoretical principle and a course of action which it implies. Through group discussion, demonstration, and co-operative participation in curriculum study, much progress can be made in developing an understanding of this important interrelationship. The cause

of improvement is served when educators possess the ability to translate sound principles into appropriate action and can view and justify their professional actions in terms of accepted educational principles.

SUGGESTIONS FOR GAINING A FURTHER UNDERSTANDING OF THE IMPROVEMENT FUNCTION OF SUPERVISION

1. Confer with a person engaged in personnel work in industry to try to determine some of the means used to increase production in industry.
2. Consult appropriate sections of various issues of *Educational Leadership*, the publication of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, to gain ideas concerning the nature of curriculum research being carried on at local and state levels.
3. Become acquainted with the research resources of the United States Office of Education and the National Education Association. Also the resources of your state department of public instruction and your state teachers association.
4. Consult informed persons about important research studies being conducted at nearby colleges or universities.
5. Locate a school system which has been noted for curriculum development. Find out how they organize the staff and community for such studies.

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Part IV

THE PROCESSES OF SUPERVISION

Chapter 8

Working Together to Formulate Goals

The American people have always expected a great deal from their schools. The nature of these expectations has been modified somewhat from time to time but, in general, a strong faith in education has permeated the lives of our people throughout the history of this country. The hopes and aspirations of people for themselves and their children have been linked closely with the processes of education and the thread of freedom has been recognized as being intertwined with literacy and understanding.

Actually, there was evidence of great faith in the power of education long before the existence of a highly developed Western culture with organized educational systems. Part of the admonition of the old Hebraic law was to "train up a child in the way he should go and when he is old, he will not depart from it." Later, statements concerning the importance and nature of education were issued, some of them by persons of considerable distinction such as the Italian scholar, Vergerius, the English poet, Milton, and the educational scholar and theorist, John Locke. Still later, during the nineteenth century, Herbert Spencer, who as a scientist was quite interested in the evolutionary theories advanced by Darwin, proposed a list of the main functions of education which he felt should place emphasis on self-preservation, rearing offspring, social and political relations, and proper use of leisure time.

Education was foremost in the minds of early American leaders as a vital means for guaranteeing the success of the American experiment in self-government. Benjamin Franklin, during the middle part of the eighteenth century when he was attempting to establish an academy in Philadelphia, expressed his views on what he believed to be the functions of the school. In essence, he endorsed the desirability of teaching "everything useful and everything ornamental." Since, in his opinion, this was impossible, he considered it the task of the school to teach those things which were *most* useful and *most* ornamental. Some years later, Thomas Jefferson introduced into the Legislature of Virginia a bill providing for a state supported educational system. In making his proposal, he reiterated rather forcibly his faith in education as the basic means of promoting responsible freedom and of protecting the people from tyranny.

The process of formulating the functions of education is one which has been going on for centuries and, of course, is still commanding the attention of people throughout the civilized world. Determining the aims of education is a task that can never be completed with finality since the individual and cultural needs of mankind are related to the period in which he lives. This process of continuous examination of educational aims, however, is one of the things which has kept the element of dynamism in the public schools of America. Such a continuous analysis of the functions of education is wholly consistent with the philosophy of keeping our social processes close to the needs of our people. This flexibility of purpose also helps to prevent cultural smugness and professional stagnation.

In our contemporary society, certain difficulties are faced when attempts are made to formulate educational aims which reflect with fidelity the collective will of the people. In a system of living which emphasizes the necessity for protecting the voice of the individual, some difficulty is to be expected when one faces the task of setting up generalized aims which will be acceptable to all. The chief complications in connection with the formulation of objectives usu-

ally arise because public expectations for education are sometimes:

1. Inconsistent with each other. For example, segments of the public may feel that we should educate children in such a way that they are equipped to participate in a free society, but may insist that schools insist on unquestioning obedience in the training of children.
2. Subject to impulse and expediency to a degree inconsistent with the long-range values which have been ascribed to education. Sudden changes in international relationships or dramatic technological achievements, which should always be considered, of course, often spark a public insistence on unproved redirections for education.
3. Not reflecting a sensitivity to rapid change in the nature and demands of contemporary society.
4. Almost all-inclusive to the point of making it virtually impossible for schools to achieve well all the aims assigned to them.
5. Conflicting with other basic tenets of systems of living and governing ourselves. For example, some of our citizenry would have the schools attempt to teach moral and spiritual values in a manner that would jeopardize the perpetuation of the concept of separation of church and state.
6. Disputed as to their significance and value. This disagreement is found among laymen and, for that matter, among professional educators and leaders.

In spite of complications such as those indicated above, remarkable success has rewarded the efforts of the American people to shape a system of public education which promotes the general welfare without losing sight of the development of the individual. In general, while the aims of education have been modified from time to time, there always has been a workable consensus regarding the major functions of the school.

Several types of considerations seem essential to any serious study of educational goals. Though it is not the major purpose of this book to treat this matter exhaustively, some of the more pertinent aspects of formulating and interpreting educational goals are included in the following sections of this chapter. Specifically, attention is given to: (1) some

basic principles related to educational goals; (2) placing and allocation of responsibility for determining the goals of education; (3) the levels of educational goals as they affect educational practice; (4) some sociological and psychological considerations to guide efforts to establish educational goals; and (5) the supervisor's role in the formulation and interpretation of educational goals.

BASIC PRINCIPLES RELATED TO EDUCATIONAL GOALS

The formulation of educational objectives is an extremely complex process. It involves attention to broad, philosophic considerations and, at the same time, must take into account the technical and scientific aspects of learning and teaching. Educational goals represent the center of concern around which the will of the people and the professional understanding and skills of the educator must operate. It seems desirable here to discuss briefly a few principles which underly the thoughtful formulation of educational objectives.

Goals give direction to effort. It has been pointed out many times before that, to be wholly productive, effort should be meaningful and purposeful. Unless an individual or group senses clearly the goals which are to be accomplished, a high proportion of wasteful activity is almost inevitable. Thus, a clear recognition and understanding of educational goals is one means of lending some assurance of efficiency in the translation of a philosophy of education into learning activities.

Meaningful aims also lend some protection against the almost persistent temptation to develop many of the tangent, but possibly less significant, possibilities for learning. It might be wonderful, if it were possible, to suggest that children explore all the multitude of possibilities for learning which the world affords. However, such an approach to education would be extremely unrealistic in view of the limitless boundaries of such possibilities. It becomes the function of educational goals, therefore, to focus attention on the essential values, understanding, and skills needed to

live happily and productively in our age. This requires the application of the highest quality of corporate judgment that can be obtained.

Goals give impetus to effort. Aims are always related to hopes and aspirations. Educational goals basically are statements of hoped-for outcomes or attainments. It has been demonstrated in many areas of human effort that the spirit of enthusiasm is kindled and energies often greatly enhanced by the visualization of a worthwhile and important goal. The motivating effect of hope on performance can often be readily seen in the lives of children as they look forward to important, happy events. Often their energies are redoubled in the effort to attain an accomplishment which is truly important to them. Similarly, adults perform better when they are conscious of meaningful aims to be achieved. If success, or partial success, as it is claimed, is a powerful motivating force, then there must be standards established against which success may be measured. Educational goals can serve the purpose of determining when *success has been achieved*.

Goals should be co-operatively conceived and formulated. Educational goals are not the prerogative of any particular segment of the American people. Obviously, the nature and quality of the educational program is a matter of appropriate concern at the national, state, and local levels. In a similar manner, the determination of the proper functions of education in American democracy is a proper concern of both lay and professional groups. This being the case, the formulation of educational purposes solely through armchair activities of so-called experts is not quite consistent with our definition of the role of education, or of its relationship to our way of life. Aims are most valid when they can be wisely sifted from the most intelligent deliberations of all who have a rightful stake in the educational process. This does not negate, of course, the role of professional leadership in guiding and co-ordinating such deliberations.

The establishment of goals implies and requires a philosophy. Goals represent commitments to action based on the

assumption of the importance of certain values held for individuals and humanity as a whole. In the process of applying reasoned judgments to various components of human experience and welfare, a scale of human values tends to emerge. This process of making intelligent value judgments represents the primary role of the philosophic method as it is applied to education. Educational goals, then, are derived from a consideration of relative values. In turn, the values which receive emphasis both determine and reflect the nature of the philosophy of education, and of life, which is being activated and given expression through the program of the school. In general, it may be safely said that there is always a relationship between the philosophy of an individual or group and the goals which are considered to be important.

Goals offer guidance to education at many levels of activity. The effect of a widespread system of public education is felt in many directions and at many levels. Hardly an individual or agency escapes its impact. Many of the established goals of education are so universal in their desirability that they may reflect national, or even world-wide, concern. Even national security, particularly in times of international tension of conflict, is closely linked to educational considerations.

In addition to the more universal goals of education, many educational aims arise out of the community orientation of the school and in recognition of special or unique functions of a particular school or school system. Even more specific objectives need to be established and understood by teachers and pupils at the classroom level.

In summary, though many goals of universal value exist, it may be necessary to modify and adapt educational aims in terms of geographical and cultural differences and in relation to specific functions of each vertical unit of our educational system.

Goals should be ethically based. The conception of the American system of government was affected materially by moral and religious influences and was based essentially on

man's humanity to man. The development of the American way of life has rested heavily on the assumption that individual freedom carries with it the obligation to respect the rights of others. This is basically a *moral consideration* involving ideals expressed through a system of human ethics.

The core of ethics which sustains the democratic process can be discovered in many facets of life. The principle which asserts that a person is considered to be innocent until he is proved to be guilty has been one of the sturdy bulwarks of protection in matters of *human rights*. The assumption that a child should not be deprived of the benefits of an education because of the economic or social status of his parents is primarily an expression of the ideal of justice. Since such concepts form the very heart of the democratic way, they cannot well be ignored in the process of determining the guiding goals of public education.

Goals should be culturally based. It is the proper business of education to assist each generation in its efforts to identify and perpetuate significant elements of its cultural heritage. This demands attention to the longitudinal developments of history and to the horizontal forces of the current society. Cultural sensitivity not only involves a reverence for our great traditions but a respect for and understanding of environmental influences which tend to enrich our lives. Such sensitivity is not a quality inherently possessed by a people; it must be developed. Certainly, this is a consideration which should not escape attention when educational goals are established.

Goals should be functionally based. In the discussion of preceding principles considerable emphasis has been placed on the importance of ethical and cultural considerations in relation to the shaping of the aims and structures of public education. It is not implied by this emphasis, however, that the pragmatic view has no place in the formulation of educational objectives. Rather, the necessity for gearing educational aims and learning experiences to the immediate demands of everyday living is vital. The co-existence of elements of idealism and functionalism is neither undesir-

able nor impossible in the modern school program. The difficulty comes in visualizing and developing a well-integrated array of learning experiences which yield outcomes which have both functional usefulness and enduring value. Certainly, any thoughtfully conceived set of educational goals must be oriented to the nature and demands of the surrounding environment and needs of the current society.

Goals should be subject to modification. For centuries, the accepted functions of education have undergone change in terms of the nature of the society which has characterized different periods of history. This modification, though often gradual, has continued to the present day and undoubtedly will continue in the future. Very few, if any, of the aims of education can be considered absolute, although some may have a highly sustaining value. Actually, educational goals, or practices, cannot be considered good or bad simply because they are old or new; their merit must be appraised in terms of their contributions to the welfare of mankind and to the creation of a better world. In the modification of goals, of course, care should be exercised to insure that professional whim or educational fad is not permitted to replace intelligent deliberation as the basis for change.

Goals must be recognized and understood to be useful. Perhaps one of the greatest deterrents to improvement in the field of education has been the lack of ability, or inclination, to go beyond the level of merely giving lip-service to modern principles of teaching and learning. The same may be said concerning the acceptance of many of the purposes of modern education. Both laymen and educators sometimes subscribe to verbal statements of objectives apparently without being aware of their implications for educational practice. If educational goals are to be useful, educational practitioners must sense their meaning to the extent of being able to visualize their implications for teaching and learning. It is equally important for parents and laymen to understand the nature and extent of support which the implementation of accepted goals requires.

Goals are essential to the process of evaluation. Some of the ramifications of this principle were discussed in Chapter 6. It would be difficult to emphasize too greatly, however, the importance of the relationship of purpose to the process of evaluation. Outcomes can be measured and adjudged only in terms of purposes to be achieved. Without the presence of educational aims, how can either the quality or pertinence or increments of growth be appraised? A comparison of actual attainments with expected attainments is always basic to the determination of individual growth and to the appraisal of the general effectiveness of the instructional program of the school.

It is a function of supervision to assist in formulating and clarifying educational goals. The primary task of supervision is that of improving instruction. This is accomplished through professional leadership activities which improve the process of teaching and the quality of learning. Ordinarily, the role of the supervisor is linked closely with teaching techniques and materials. Admittedly, these comprise an important part of the supervisor's responsibility. It should not be overlooked, however, that the appropriateness and effectiveness of teaching techniques is determined largely by the nature of the educational purpose to be served. Therefore, one of the approaches to improved teaching is that of helping teachers understand more clearly the importance and nature of educational objectives as they are related to the processes which are planned in the classroom.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE FORMULATION OF PURPOSES

In the democratic value system, the interdependence of the individual and society is basic. The common welfare is always dependent upon the well-being of individuals and, conversely, individuals invariably are affected by the society of which they are a part. Society has established and developed a system of education to promote the achievement of ends considered to be essential to the self-realization of

individuals and to the sustenance and improvement of society itself.

In the process of developing an educational system dedicated to the task of educating all American children and youth, two major controls have evolved. First, the legislative control of the schools has been placed and kept in the hands of laymen. This is consistent with the concept of schools as instruments created and perpetuated by the people to serve the needs of individuals and society. Second, out of the evolution of an effective system of public education has emerged the need for professional leaders and practitioners skilled in the technical processes of education. In view of these two regulating influences, it is only natural that a prevailing question should be that of determining where the responsibility lies for defining and proposing the purposes which should be served through education. To consider this question, it is necessary to examine some of the positions taken with reference to the relationship of the schools to social change.

ROLE OF THE SCHOOL

The question of the role of the school in relation to social change is one which has prevailed throughout the history of American education. Concepts of this relationship have varied, from time to time, in terms of the social and economic conditions of the period. It seems possible to delineate at least four possible positions which may be espoused concerning the role of the school in social change.

1. The business of the school is to perpetuate a prevailing culture and an existing state of affairs to the extent of actually opposing social change. Obviously, this point of view is inconsistent with the democratic ideal of judging processes in terms of human welfare and dignity rather than on the basis of permanently established beliefs.
2. The school should operate in a purely passive manner and shape its philosophy and design its program in terms of whatever social change occurs. This position appears to place the

school outside the arena of social progress to an extent not compatible with the concept of democracy.

3. The school should furnish the active leadership in social change and should be the chief agency for reshaping our society. This position appears to assume a status role of leadership for the school which is inconsistent with the emphasis on co-operation and diversified leadership in the democratic process.
4. The school should strive to develop in citizens, both at the childhood and adult levels, the skills of critical thinking and problem-solving necessary for the intelligent promulgation of desirable social change. This point of view seems to be more in keeping with the role of education in a democracy.

ROLE OF SOCIETY

The school is the creation of society and it depends on the continuing interest of society for its success in contributing to human affairs. Basically, as implied in the preceding paragraph, primary responsibility for the determination of the broad objectives of education rests with society. This responsibility may be assumed in some cases by society as a whole or by segments of the total society such as the community. Supplementing this role of society in the formulation of general outcomes to be sought through education is the role of the persons actually involved in the teaching-learning process—teachers and learners—who are concerned with specific day-to-day purposes which operate within the total framework of societal objectives.

The public has a vital role to play in the process of designing the nature of our schools and in contributing to their successful operation. There are at least three major ways in which the public must participate in the enterprise of providing for good schools: (1) society must assume primary responsibility for the definition of the broad social goals which give a sense of direction to schools; (2) society must participate actively in determining the scope of the school curriculum; and (3) society must assume responsibility for the support, moral and financial, which is essential to the effective functioning of schools.

The active interest of society in education is also evident in the legislative process. Legislative enactments at both the state and national levels have substantial effects on the nature and quality of education. Both the role and effectiveness of schools are affected by legislative action in such matters as financial support of schools, the selection of textbooks, and the professional preparation of teachers.

ROLE OF THE PROFESSION

It would be difficult to overemphasize the importance of the role of the professional in educational advancement. While schools quite properly get much of their direction from the society of which they are a part, a great deal of the impetus and skill for both analyzing and implementing objectives is supplied by members of the educational profession. In view of the cultural lag which has seemed to characterize educational effort in this country, it would be interesting to try to estimate just how much of the educational progress that has been made would have been made without the directions furnished by educational research and the prodding of eager and insightful leaders in the profession.

Various contributions to educational aims and their achievement are made by the profession. These contributions are the result of the efforts of individual members of the profession and of the corporate role assumed by the profession as a whole. It is impossible, and perhaps unnecessary, to detail the nature of each of these contributions. Perhaps it is sufficient to point out a few of the major roles of the profession in the determination of the nature and quality of the educational program. Some of the more pertinent types of service seem to be related to: (1) furnishing leadership and co-ordination in the deliberative and investigative processes used by society to determine the adequacy of educational aims and policies; (2) providing professional know-how for the development and operation of an educational program for the achievement of educational aims; (3) dis-

covering educational media suitable and adequate for modern educational methodology; and (4) providing professional liaison with such fields as psychology and sociology with respect to implications of developments in these fields for the direction education needs to take. In some instances, at least, it appears that society looks to educational leadership for the professionally literate expression of its own desires.

LEVELS OF PURPOSES IN EDUCATION

Educational aims vary as to level and breadth. They range all the way from the broad general purposes of education in American democracy to the very specific goals toward which the efforts of teachers and learners are directed daily in the classroom. An indication of the levels of educational aims may be gained from an enumeration of a few basic types of purposes found in American education. Some of these are: (1) the broad general purposes of education in American democracy; (2) school objectives which describe the tasks a school or school system sets for itself; and (3) teacher-pupil objectives.

The program objectives of the school, of course, may be classified in other ways. For example, the aims of the school may be categorized in terms of the general objectives of the curriculum, subject objectives, and unit objectives. The nature of the classification used, or the terminology used, is not the vital consideration. More important is the recognition of the need for conscious purposes in connection with educational effort at all levels, and for teachers to possess a workable understanding of the relationship of objectives at all levels to each other. Perhaps it is worthwhile at this point to offer brief descriptions and illustrations of some of the types of objectives found to be useful in education.

GENERAL AIMS OF EDUCATION

From time to time, throughout the development of public education in America, statements of aims have been formulated in the hope of focalizing educational effort and pro-

cedures on significant aspects of learning. A few of these have commanded almost universal attention and have had a marked effect on educational emphasis.

One of the most widely circulated statements of objectives was formulated in 1938 by the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association ¹ and is quoted here.

THE OBJECTIVES OF SELF-REALIZATION

The Inquiring Mind. The educated person has an appetite for learning.

Speech. The educated person can speak the mother tongue clearly.

Reading. The educated person reads the mother tongue efficiently.

Writing. The educated person writes the mother tongue effectively.

Number. The educated person solves his problems of counting and calculating.

Sight and Hearing. The educated person is skilled in listening and observing.

Health Knowledge. The educated person understands the basic facts concerning health and disease.

Health Habits. The educated person protects his own health and that of his dependents.

Public Health. The educated person works to improve the health of the community.

Recreation. The educated person is participant and spectator in many sports and other pastimes.

Intellectual Interests. The educated person has mental resources for the use of leisure.

Esthetic Interests. The educated person appreciates beauty.

Character. The educated person gives responsible direction to his own life.

THE OBJECTIVES OF HUMAN RELATIONSHIP

Respect for Humanity. The educated person puts human relationships first.

Friendships. The educated person enjoys a rich, sincere, and varied social life.

Cooperation. The educated person can work and play with others.

Courtesy. The educated person observes the amenities of social behavior.

¹ *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association of the United States, 1938), p. 41.

Appreciation of the Home. The educated person appreciates the family as a social institution.

Conservation of the Home. The educated person conserves family ideals.

Homemaking. The educated person is skilled in homemaking.

Democracy in the Home. The educated person maintains democratic family relationships.

THE OBJECTIVES OF ECONOMIC EFFICIENCY

Work. The educated producer knows the satisfaction of good workmanship.

Occupational Information. The educated producer understands the requirements and opportunities for various jobs.

Occupational Choice. The educated producer has selected his occupation.

Occupational Efficiency. The educated producer succeeds in his chosen vocation.

Occupational Adjustment. The educated producer maintains and improves his efficiency.

Occupational Appreciation. The educated producer appreciates the social value of his work.

Personal Economics. The educated consumer plans the economics of his own life.

Consumer Judgment. The educated consumer develops standards for guiding his expenditures.

Efficiency in Buying. The educated consumer is an informed and skillful buyer.

Consumer Protection. The educated consumer takes appropriate measures to safeguard his interests.

THE OBJECTIVES OF CIVIC RESPONSIBILITY

Social Justice. The educated citizen is sensitive to the disparities of human circumstance.

Social Activity. The educated citizen acts to correct unsatisfactory conditions.

Social Understanding. The educated citizen seeks to understand social structures and social processes.

Critical Judgment. The educated citizen has defenses against propaganda.

Tolerance. The educated citizen respects honest differences of opinion.

Conservation. The educated citizen has a regard for the nation's resources.

Social Applications of Science. The educated citizen measures scientific advance by its contribution to the general welfare.

World Citizenship. The educated citizen is a cooperating member of the world community.

Law Observance. The educated citizen respects the law.

Economic literacy. The educated citizen is economically literate.

Political Citizenship. The educated citizen accepts his civic duties.

Devotion to Democracy. The educated citizen acts upon an unswerving loyalty to democratic ideals.

The deliberative consideration of educational aims has been undertaken from time to time by groups both from within and from outside the profession. Occasionally, such groups have drawn their membership from leading citizens in all walks of life and have presented a valid cross-sectional view of education and its responsibilities. This type of group has been exemplified concretely in the White House Conferences. In 1930, the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection formulated *The Children's Charter* which included the following statements related to education:

1. For *every child* spiritual and moral training to help him stand firm under the pressure of life.
2. For *every child* understanding and the guarding of his personality as his most precious right.
3. For *every child* health protection from birth, through adolescence, including periodical health examinations and, where needed, care of specialists and hospital treatment; regular dental examination and care of the teeth; protective and preventive measures against communicable diseases; the insuring of pure food, pure milk, and pure water.
4. For *every child* from birth through adolescence, promotion of health, including health instruction and a health program, wholesome physical and mental recreation, with teachers and leaders adequately trained.
5. For *every child* a school which is safe from hazards, sanitary, properly equipped, lighted and ventilated. For younger children nursery schools and kindergartens to supplement home care.
6. For *every child* a community which recognizes and plans for his needs, protects him against physical dangers, moral hazards, and disease; provides him with safe and wholesome places for play and recreation; and makes provision for his cultural and social needs.
7. For *every child* an education which, through the discovery and development of his individual abilities, prepares him for life; and

through training and vocational guidance prepares him for a living which will yield him the maximum of satisfaction.

8. For *every child* such teaching and training as will prepare him for successful parenthood, homemaking, and the rights of citizenship; and, for parents, supplementary training to fit them to deal wisely with the problems of parenthood.
9. For *every child* education for safety and protection against accidents to which modern conditions subject him—those to which he is directly exposed and those which, through loss or maiming of his parents, affect him directly.
10. For *every child* who is blind, deaf, crippled, or otherwise physically handicapped, and for the child who is mentally handicapped, such measures as will early discover and diagnose his handicap, provide care and treatment, and so train him that he may become an asset to society rather than a liability. Expenses of these services should be borne publicly where they cannot be privately met.
11. For *every child* who is in conflict with society the right to be dealt with intelligently as society's charge, not society's outcast; with the home, the school, the church, the court, and the institution when needed, shaped to return him whenever possible to the normal stream of life.
12. For *every child* protection against labor that stunts growth, either physical or mental, that limits education, that deprives children of the right of comradeship of play, and those of joy.

FOR EVERY CHILD THESE RIGHTS, REGARDLESS OF RACE, OR COLOR,
OR SITUATION WHEREVER HE MAY LIVE UNDER THE PROTECTION
OF THE AMERICAN FLAG.

An excellent set of recommended goals for children of elementary school age appears in a publication of the Russell Sage Foundation. (See *Selected References*.) The major goals are stated as being related to:

1. Physical Development, Health, and Body Care
2. Individual Social and Emotional Development
3. Ethical Behavior, Standards, Values
4. Social Relations
5. The Social World
6. The Physical World (The Natural Environment)
7. Esthetic Development
8. Communication
9. Quantitative Relationships.

These illustrate the types of general concerns which have emerged from thoughtful segments of our population. Such concerns form a broad platform of educational commitments which serves as a goal for educators and a framework within which educational procedures should be developed.

OBJECTIVES OF THE SCHOOL

It might be assumed that the objectives of any particular school should be identical with the accepted general purposes of education such as those listed above. A more thoughtful analysis will reveal, however, that each school, or school system, serves a unique school population with some needs of a common nature and some of a particular kind. School-communities differ in terms of geographical location, sociological structure, cultural backgrounds, and educational resources. Even such factors as health conditions, bilingualism, and juvenile delinquency have strong implications for the philosophy and aims of the school. Whether stated as a philosophy of education or in the form of expressed goals, the aims held for education in any particular community affect board-policy, administrative practices, and instructional methodology.

A survey of the expressed philosophies of good school systems throughout the country will provide many excellent statements of school objectives. A typical set of aims of this type was formulated by the Minneapolis Public Schools.² They are:

1. To develop and maintain good physical and good mental health
2. To achieve command of the fundamental skills and knowledges which are basic to all other learning
3. To learn to receive and to express ideas effectively
4. To gain an understanding of our constitutional form of government and a knowledge of the history of his United States

² Rufus A. Putnam, *Achieving the Objectives of Education: A Guide for Curriculum Improvement* (Minneapolis, Minn.: Minneapolis Public Schools, 1953).

and of the part which the United States plays in world affairs; to accept the obligations of good citizenship

5. To understand the scientific approach to the problems of life, recognizing the need for conservation of human and natural resources and the contributions made by science to the world in which we live
6. To acquire salable skills in fields of his choice which will enable him to take his place in the economic world
7. To become an intelligent consumer of material goods, cultural products, and services
8. To develop avocational interests which are satisfying and provide for worthy use of leisure time
9. To develop spiritual understandings: to learn to recognize the ethical, esthetic, and religious values of experience and to act accordingly.

In examining statements of educational objectives developed in recent years, one discovers a trend toward expressing aims more specifically and more in terms of desired behavioral outcomes. An excellent illustration of this latter trend is found in the goals listed in a publication of the Department of Public Instruction of the State of Indiana.³ The desired outcomes are:

1. A healthy, well-developed body and habits and knowledge that will enable him to keep it so
2. A clean wholesome mind
3. Strength and integrity of character
4. Ability to get along happily with others, knowing the courtesies and rules of the game, how to cooperate, how to lead, and how to follow
5. Initiative to get a job and ability to hold it
6. Appreciation of his personal and civic responsibilities and the will to live up to them in home, school, and community
7. Resources within himself to care for work and leisure time
8. Self-propelled and self-directed behavior within the limits set by society
9. Interest in the world about him, with knowledge to understand and appreciate it

³ *A Good Start in School*, Bulletin No. 226 rev. ed.; Indianapolis, Ind.: State Dept. of Public Instruction, 1958).

10. Eagerness to continue growing and learning, and ability to recognize and use all available resources for learning
11. Skill to do whatever he needs to do or willingness to achieve it
12. Command of all the essential forms of communication
13. Understanding of what it means to be free and to be a part of a democratic society.

The faculty of the University School of The Ohio State University formulated a governing philosophy expressed as curricular emphases.⁴ These emphases were justified in terms of their relation to democratic values. The topical headings illustrate the basic point of view expressed in the statement as a whole.

1. Developing social sensitivity
2. Developing co-operativeness
3. Developing the ability and zeal to utilize the method of intelligence in solving all problems of human concern
4. Developing creativeness
5. Developing skills in democratic living
6. Interpreting democracy
7. Developing self-direction
8. Developing communication skills and appreciations
9. Developing skills in measurement and the use of quantitative symbols
10. Developing skills in utilizing goods and services
11. Promoting social adjustments
12. Promoting health and safety
13. Developing vocational adjustments and standards
14. Developing adequate recreational outlets
15. Developing standards of personal appearance and grooming.

TEACHER-PUPIL OBJECTIVES

Presumably, all organized learning experiences are based on educational purpose and are intended to lead to desired outcomes. This remains true no matter how the curriculum is organized. In the subject-centered curriculum, educa-

⁴ *The Philosophy and Purposes of the University School* (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State Univ., 1948).

tional outcomes are presumed to emerge from the study of each of the subject areas of the curriculum; in a broad-type organization, such as the unit approach, objectives are visualized and stated in terms of the outcomes expected to result from experiences of the unit. Actually, a particular lesson, or activity, is planned on the assumption that certain educational aims will be served through such an experience.

Some statements of purpose show an awareness of the relationship of objectives in specific curricular areas to the broader aims of education. Following is such a statement adapted from a curriculum guide for the social studies which was formulated in 1952 for the Indianapolis Public Schools.

Three of the major purposes of elementary education are (1) the acquisition of the tools and skills of communication and expression, (2) the knowledge and understanding of the development of man in his natural and social environment looking toward the growth of each person as an individual and as a competent member of society, and (3) the participation of the child in democratic experiences.

The field of social studies in education contributes to the accomplishment of each of the above mentioned purposes of education at the child's level of understanding. To this end social studies strives to provide those experiences and activities that will enable each individual to acquire knowledge, understanding, and appreciation of:

1. The interaction of man and his environment, natural and social (geography)
2. The development of our political, social, and cultural heritage (history)
3. The moral and spiritual values necessary for improving human worth (ethics)
4. The rights, opinions, and contributions of all regardless of race, nationality, creed, or socio-economic status (sociology)
5. The structure of our society and our relationship to it (government)
6. The responsibilities of a competent citizen in a democracy (citizenship)
7. Logical reasoning and evaluation as an accepted process in problem solving (critical thinking).

Education provides the factual information and experiences that will lead the child to participate in his world and accept an ever increasing responsibility for bettering himself and the society in which he lives. Thus the social studies begins with the knowledge and experiences of

the child and his relationships with the people and community about him and continuously expands until his participation interacts with society and its institutions in the broadest sense.

Unit objectives usually are stated in terms of information, understanding, skills, and attitudes or appreciations to be gained from the study of a particular center of interest. They may be quite expansive and detailed or rather brief, depending on the nature of the unit and the level of maturity of the learners. For example, in a primary unit on the study of "Insects," the following might be suitable aims:

1. To develop an interest in the world of nature around us
2. To extend information about the world of insects
3. To develop an understanding of the values of some insects
4. To develop skills and habits necessary for gaining needed information
5. To develop the ability to share information effectively.

SOCIOLOGICAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Sociological and psychological factors have strong implications for the goals toward which our people consciously strive. Education, as a means for this striving, both affects and is affected by these factors and considerations. An understanding of the nature of the democratic structure, the predominant features of our contemporary culture, and emerging principles related to human behavior is essential to an intelligent analysis of educational aims and problems.

SOCIOLOGICAL FACTORS

Modern society is extremely complex. In view of its complexity and ever-changing nature, it is not surprising that individuals, and even groups, often experience difficulty in adjusting to its demands and conditions. Certainly, one of the aims of education should be that of assisting individuals in adjusting to their social environment to the end that they may in turn take intelligent steps to improve it.

It is difficult to characterize the society of this era. Among its most obvious features, modern society is characterized by the following:

1. An increasing interdependence of people. This feature is noted in processes at the local community level and extends through all levels of relationships including those at the international level.
2. A complex economic structure which touches many aspects of living. The regulation of business, monetary policy and control, labor-management relations, and taxation are just a few of the concerns which add complexity to our society.
3. The machine approach to production. Mechanization and automation have brought new dimensions to our productivity and the need for new adjustments in our living patterns.
4. Mobility of population. In general this mobility has been expressed in two ways: extended travel by most persons beyond the communities in which they live and the trend toward urbanization of the population.
5. Specialization of function. Vocational pursuits have become highly differentiated and the average person is dependent on numerous other persons for everyday needs and services.
6. The operation of social conscience. Never has there been a greater inclination for fortunate people to share their resources with the less fortunate and for people as a whole to contribute in organized ways to elimination of ignorance, disease and poverty.
7. The resultant strain of speed and competition. The intensity with which many members of our current society pursue vocational goals, along with competition for social status, undoubtedly has created at least some of the problems of mental health encountered today.

PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTORS

Since all education has its focus in the hope for changed behavior in individuals, it is difficult to see how any thoughtful consideration can be given to the formulation of educational goals without corresponding attention to the psychological characteristics and needs of individuals. In relation

to the growth of children of elementary school age most of these needs have been reasonably well defined. Some which appear to have rather direct implications for the program of the school are status, belongingness, expression, participation in group concerns, satisfaction, security, love and respect, and increasing independence. Obviously, these needs are not necessarily independent of each other, nor are they all purely psychological in nature. They seem to be sufficiently related to the objectives and processes of education, however, to warrant inclusion here.

Aside from psychological considerations of a more personal nature, such as those above, certain psychological bases of learning merit consideration in establishing educational goals and programs. Some of the more important of these are stated or implied in the latter part of the statement given below.

RELATIONSHIP TO EDUCATIONAL GOALS

In addition to the specific sociological and psychological factors mentioned in the preceding paragraphs, certain principles appear to be quite closely related to the design of the elementary-school program. The following principles (here, in condensed form) appeared in a bulletin issued by the Wisconsin State Department of Public Instruction: ⁵

Sociological Principles

1. Social change is bound to occur but progress is assured only by deliberate thoughtful, cooperative and responsible effort.
2. Social progress is not necessarily consistent or general.
3. A democratic society implies a democratic school which will be a simplified, balanced and improved miniature society.
4. A democratic school has a responsibility for a close-working relationship with its sustaining community.
5. The nature of our democratic society, actually and prospectively, is our guide in developing our schools.
6. The school is only one of the educative agencies in our society.

⁵ *First Things First* (Madison, Wis.: State Dept. of Public Instruction, 1935), pp. 8-16.

7. Social integration and social differentiation are both necessary to our society and our schools.
8. The economic basis of society is in our times demonstratively evident though not well understood.
9. A democratic society implies making available certain elements necessary for the advancement of that society and the happiness of the individual.

Psychological Principles

1. Significant psychological differences in persons influence the rate, direction and patterns of learning.
2. The nature of the child together with the nature of society in which he lives makes guidance an essential part of growing into maturity.
3. The child learns more fully and more happily when conditions and surroundings are favorable to learning.
4. The child learns best when his physical and psychological development are ready for a particular type of learning.
5. A child learns best when his own interests and purposes are consulted.
6. A child is a complex creature whose behavior cannot be measured but may be evaluated.
7. The child's nature includes elements of feeling, emotion and action as well as intellect.
8. The nature of the child together with that of society requires that learning be experience and experience be life.

ROLE OF THE SUPERVISOR

The service of supervisory leadership is quite valuable in the study and formulation of educational aims. The professional leadership of the supervisor can be profitably related to each of the various types of educational goals discussed earlier in this chapter. While the interests and composition of the local staff must be considered in defining the role of the supervisor, it may, nevertheless, be helpful to indicate some of the possible ways in which a supervisor may contribute to a refinement and understanding of educational aims.

To be useful, the broad social aims of education first must be recognized and then applied to the local situation. With

respect to these general goals the supervisor can be of service in:

1. Assisting in the location and compilation of significant statements of social aims issued in recent years
2. Making provisions for the critical examination and study of such statements and of social issues discussed in current educational literature
3. Furnishing leadership in defining and interpreting the sources and processes of goal-derivation
4. Providing leadership in making intelligent adaptation of broad social aims to the local situation
5. Providing leadership in the formulation of school objectives based on and developed within the framework of the broader social aims.

The objectives of the teacher are determined not only by the needs of society but also by the needs of the individuals. The definition and recognition of these needs can be facilitated in numerous ways. Many of the possible approaches are stimulated by effective leadership by the supervisor. Among the functions that can be profitably assumed by the supervisor are:

1. Arranging for the co-operative study of educational and social issues by members of the school staff and laymen
2. Providing for the study of child development and the characteristics of children at various levels of maturity
3. Encouraging members of the staff to participate in surveys of community conditions and needs
4. Providing for the study of the relationship of broad general aims to those of the teacher
5. Encouraging continuous evaluation by teachers of classroom objectives.

The aims of the learner usually are related to seeking answers to questions, finding solutions to problems, or to satisfying strong interests. As learners mature, their goals may be expected to shift from more immediate satisfactions to those which are more remote. Similarly, goals may move from concreteness toward values of a more intangible nature as the child achieves greater maturity and experience. Actu-

ally, the valid purposes of learners also form the basis for the teacher's objectives. Hence, these two types of purposes are closely interrelated.

Any professional activities which assist teachers in determining the needs and interests of children can make a contribution to the formulation of constructive pupil aims. Even though the supervisor may not be directly involved in all such types of activities, his interest, support, and leadership will be needed if these professional efforts are to yield maximum benefits. More detailed descriptions of the methods of studying learners appear in other sections of this volume. However, it may be useful to mention here some of the techniques which appear to have implications for supervisory leadership. These techniques include:

1. Interviews with learners
2. Studies of interests of learners
3. Tests of achievement
4. Compilation of free, conversational questions of learners
5. Observation of learners
6. Anecdotal records
7. Sociometric techniques
8. Projective techniques
9. Case studies
10. Analysis of work submitted by learners.

The supervisor is a key person in all aspects of the educational program. The importance of his role in the formulation and interpretation of educational goals hardly can be overestimated. In addition to the impetus his leadership can give to others, his own consciousness and understanding of important educational aims quite likely will be contagious.

SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVING UNDERSTANDING OF EDUCATIONAL GOALS

1. Obtain and read the entire monograph on *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy* issued in 1933 by the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association.

2. Make an analysis of the unique features of your local community which suggest implications for the educational aims of the school system.
3. From a library try to find statements of philosophy of education in countries other than the United States. Try to determine how the philosophy was formulated.
4. Collect and examine a number of curriculum guides issued by school systems. Try to determine to what extent their stated aims are in agreement.
5. Review current articles on the aims of education.
6. Talk with a skillful experienced teacher about teacher and pupil objectives and their relation to curriculum planning.

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the cultural influences which help to shape educational goals in American society.

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Chapter 9

Working Together to Improve the Curriculum

The curriculum is the heart of the whole school program. It is the medium and the co-ordinating influence for learning and teaching as well as the determining force for administrative practice. The curriculum of the school is the set of learning experiences consciously devised for the purpose of achieving worthwhile objectives. As the focal point of all activities occurring in the school, its quality affects the quality and effectiveness of the entire program of the school. It is little wonder, then, that most educators feel that educational improvement begins with the improvement of the curriculum.

Many forces combine today to create great interest in the curriculum of the school. Indeed, it seems safe to assert that there never has been a period of American history in which greater public interest in education has been shown. This interest on the part of both educators and the public has been brought about by various factors and developments. As was implied in the preceding chapter, many sense the lag between technological development and the development of the necessary social controls for guaranteeing human progress. Technological progress has permitted mankind to gain remarkable controls over his physical environment and has brought about a period in which inventive genius has produced almost unbelievable results. At least a large measure

of this progress has been attributable to our educational system. There are many, however, who express the need for greater emphasis on the development of more effective human relations in this changing, interdependent world of ours. This, they feel, is a proper concern of education, and has strong implications for the curriculum of the school.

Closely related to the problem of human relations is the quest for peace in the world today. Thoughtful persons, within and outside the profession, cannot help sensing the cruciality of this concern when they view the types of military destructiveness which are now possible. They relate this concern to the development of moral and social attitudes of people and, quite naturally, to the matter of curriculum study and planning.

Another of the problems of human interaction in the world today is that of providing for proper balance between the collective security of mankind and individual freedoms. One of the greatest aims of democracy is that of protecting the individual from the tyrannies of regimentation. On the other hand, it must be recognized that complete and unregulated individualism at best leads to some kind of unproductive anarchy and at worst to the emergence of an individual strong enough to dominate the rest. The necessity for a delicate working-balance between individual liberty and the collective merging of interests for the common good seems so obvious as to need little elaboration. If schools are to be the chief agency for perpetuating and refining the processes of democracy, they, themselves, must be lifelike examples of democracy in action, not only preaching its tenets but also practicing its principles. This problem certainly has basic ramifications for the planning of the curriculum and for the manner in which it is implemented in our schools.

Amid the complexities of the many types of social interaction which characterize this era, there may be a proneness to underestimate the importance of an individual learning the fine art of living with himself. In spite of the luxuries which have been developed for convenient living, modern society exerts many heavy pressures on individuals which

undoubtedly contribute to the great incidence of problems of mental health. The development of the resources of an individual which equip him to face reality objectively and with confidence is certainly a proper concern of education.

In the preceding paragraphs, some of the forces which contribute to interest in curriculum improvement were cited. Perhaps it is well to examine the other side of the coin to note some of the obstacles to curriculum improvement. Even some factors which may be generally desirable in themselves, or for other contributions they make, may serve as deterrents to progress in curriculum development. Such factors as state laws and regulations, local board of education policies, and college admission requirements may place marked restrictions on desirable curriculum change. Community attitudes are powerful forces when they are arrayed on the side of staid tradition rather than dynamic progress. Teacher attitudes and preparation are very realistically related to curriculum improvement as are also factors of textbook preparation, selection, and use. In addition to these, the nature of the financial support given the schools may be a real obstacle to program improvement.

In spite of the number and nature of the agencies and factors which affect educational improvement either favorably or adversely, the fact remains that most of the vision and leadership necessary for curriculum improvement must come from the educational profession. While broad social considerations and community pressures may furnish impetus to curriculum efforts, the professional insight and know-how for effectively merging complementary interests and coordinating active contributions invariably appears to rest with the educational leadership of the school system. Citizens, parents, teachers, and children all have appropriate contributions to make to genuine curriculum improvement. Nevertheless, as most schools are now organized, the administrator and supervisor must assume a great proportion of the responsibility for systematic efforts toward improvement of the school program. This means, of course, that they must not only have a full understanding of the social orientation

of the curriculum but also be skilled in the steps and processes of effective curriculum study.

Part of the possibility for curriculum improvement springs from a change in the concept of the curriculum. In earlier periods of our history, the curriculum was almost entirely prescribed by the state and enjoyed an almost sacred status among the teachers in the schools of the state. The years have seen a shift toward the assumption of a greater degree of local responsibility for the nature of the instructional program in individual school systems. Many common elements still exist in programs from school to school, and desirably so, but a sufficient amount of flexibility is now possible to allow substantial curriculum change at the local level. Therefore, local administrators and teachers, involving community contributions whenever possible, have found it possible to bring about much needed change through organized curriculum study.

There are many facets of curriculum improvement, some of them beyond the immediate purview of this volume. Some considerations seem so pertinent to the role of supervision in relation to program improvement, however, that they merit emphasis and elaboration. Some of the matters to be discussed in the subsequent parts of this chapter are principles related to the improvement of the curriculum, *primary concerns in curriculum development*, trends in relation to the curriculum, and approaches to curriculum study and improvement.

BASIC PRINCIPLES RELATED TO CURRICULUM IMPROVEMENT

The curriculum is influenced by so many factors, and depends so heavily on the interrelationships of many of these factors, that it may seem to be evidence of unwarranted optimism for one to attempt to present any organized or crystallized concept of the processes through which curriculum improvement may occur. Admittedly, there are many different roads which may lead to improvement in one

way or another. Nevertheless, it seems feasible to suggest some of the basic principles which may serve as a framework to guide all types of constructive activity toward program improvement.

Curriculum improvement is closely related to the prevailing concept of the curriculum. The curriculum first must be defined before it can be refined. The visualization of what is considered to be the basic aim and scope of the curriculum is essential to its intelligent evaluation and constructive refinement. For example, it would be extremely difficult, if not impossible, for the staff of a school to develop the necessary co-operative approach to curriculum improvement if each member of the staff holds to a different concept of the curriculum. In such a case, it seems vitally important to spend sufficient time and effort in group discussion to establish common denominators of communication with reference to the nature of the curriculum.

Most modern educators conceive of the curriculum as consisting of all the learning experiences of children for which the school assumes responsibility. This definition projects the process of curriculum study into many facets of learning, teaching, and environmental conditions.

Curriculum improvement must begin with existing programs and conditions. Progress in any direction must start from the point where one is. In the same manner, a staff which seeks to improve the instructional program of the school must begin with the existing level and manner of operation and seek to discover aspects of the program which most clearly reveal the need for revision. Efforts toward curriculum improvement appear to pay greater dividends when they are directed toward the solution of instructional concerns generally recognized as common and persisting problems. There are several methods by which such problems may be identified for the purpose of intensive study, some of which will be delineated in a later section of this chapter.

Curriculum improvement must be preceded by diagnosis and evaluation. Without some type of preliminary study of

the strengths and weaknesses of existing programs, any true basis for intelligent curriculum modification is absent. A professional survey of problems encountered by the staff, combined with a thoughtful consideration of constructive community opinion and the objective analysis of educational developments elsewhere, will furnish some fruitful points of attack on the problem of program improvement. Particularly high incidence of learning difficulties by children, serious promotional problems, and a general lack of interest and pride shown by the children of the school may be clues to the need for curriculum revision or adjustment. Certainly, time spent in the preliminary study and evaluation of various aspects of the instructional program is invaluable to any subsequent organized approaches to curriculum study.

Curriculum change should be positive in direction but gradual in pace. There is a very distinct difference between speed and progress. Improvement requires change but change does not always guarantee improvement unless the direction of the modification is positive and the rate of change sufficiently gradual that gains may be professionally assimilated. Sudden and sporadic changes in the curriculum usually tend to confuse teachers and arouse the suspicion, if not the opposition, of parents and laymen. Lines of communication and opportunities for interaction must be sufficient to provide all interested persons the necessary understanding of program proposals to insure their successful implementation.

While it is the prerogative, and indeed the responsibility, of educational leaders to open up new vistas of possibility for program improvement, most thoughtful administrators and supervisors will agree that it is wasteful, and often futile, to impose on a staff and community educational ideas which they are not ready to accept. A more intelligent approach appears to be that of attempting to gain the necessary consensus to permit a co-operative, though necessarily gradual, movement toward an improved program.

Curriculum improvement involves the consideration of learners for whom the curriculum is designed. It is neces-

sary to understand how children learn in order to provide the experiences and resources that will best facilitate the process. It is also essential that professional practitioners understand the characteristic interests, needs, and capacities of children at each of the various stages of developmental growth. Such considerations are not only related to selection of appropriate content of the curriculum but also, and perhaps more directly, to the sequence and placement of learning experiences within the structure of the total school curriculum. Learning tasks not only must be significant in terms of worthwhileness, but also must be appropriate to the physical and psychological maturity of the child, his experience background and his readiness to learn.

Desirable curriculum change involves changes in people. The quality of the curriculum is functionally no better than the level of understanding and proficiency of the persons who plan it and put it into operation in the classroom. Moreover, its effectiveness is affected greatly by the interrelationships of all persons who make up the educational team. This concept of curriculum improvement places great emphasis on group processes and group work for achieving desired changes in the instructional program. Therefore, any effective approach to curriculum study must have within it the opportunities for various members of the staff to work together, along with definite means whereby the processes of co-operative group attack on instructional problems may be further refined.

Effective curriculum study requires the involvement and wide participation of all persons with constructive interest in the quality of the curriculum. In the discussion of the preceding principle, it was pointed out that worthwhile changes in curriculum are closely related to corresponding changes in people. It is at this point of consideration that the process of curriculum study becomes quite as important as its end products. When members of the professional staff, along with responsible community members, are involved at each important stage of curriculum evaluation and study, desirable outcomes are not confined to the curriculum alone but

may find expression in a much improved understanding of instructional problems and a much greater ability to solve such problems co-operatively.

There is another important reason for the involvement of teachers in group curriculum study. The effectiveness of the curriculum depends on its implementation in the classroom. Since teachers are the persons closest to the actual planning and organization of learning experiences from day to day, it is they who must fully understand all the ramifications of changes proposed in the program of the school. Assuming that this is true, there appears to be no better way to gain such an understanding than to participate in the deliberations out of which the proposed changes have emerged.

Effective curriculum study requires a broad, functional organization. Constructive curriculum change seldom results from curriculum study unless some reasonably flexible plan is devised for the satisfactory co-ordination and effective utilization of the ideas of all persons directly concerned with the curriculum. Such a plan should make provisions for the suitable contributions of teachers, parents, and children, as well as those of administrators, supervisors and curriculum consultants. Certainly, such an organization should be as simple and flexible as possible as long as channels of communications are clearly provided and lines of authority and responsibility established. The basic purpose of the organizational plan is to insure optimum conditions for effective work together and under which dissatisfactions may be considered wholesomely and hopes expressed freely. Curriculum study without the benefit of some working structure is likely to be wasteful and to encourage an undue amount of diversionary effort with respect to issues of secondary importance.

Effective curriculum study depends on adequate resources. The nature of the resources which support the curriculum is vital to both curriculum planning and curriculum implementation. Profitable curriculum study can hardly proceed without the necessary material and human resources needed for creative study. These include financial

support, provision for consultants and resource persons, and adequate source materials. Broad programs of curriculum study may require also such special provisions as meeting quarters and the adjustment in the teaching loads of participating members with heavy responsibilities.

Effective curriculum study makes possible the use of a variety of approaches to program improvement. Co-operative efforts directed toward instructional improvement may be focused on different aspects of the improvement process and yield varying but worthwhile outcomes. The organization for study may be developed around the dissatisfactions of staff members and thus be largely a problem-centered approach. In another situation, the emphasis of the organization may be on the acquisition of certain skills considered to be desirable. In still other situations, the chief objective of the curriculum study is that of producing resource materials, guides, or other types of concrete end-products designed to facilitate teaching. In any case, it is wise to adapt the type of organization used to the main types of outcomes expected to result from the effort.

Curriculum study is facilitated by effective educational leadership. As in other aspects of the educational process, effective leadership can provide needed stimulation and helpful guidance to systematic curriculum study. It is important that the leader work with individuals and groups in such a manner that security is not threatened, individuality is protected, talents are discovered and utilized, and a high level of morale is maintained.

ASPECTS OF THE CURRICULUM

The curriculum of the elementary school may be examined in many different ways, and its total nature divided into numerous components. In the main, educational improvement tends to emerge from one or more of the following developments: (1) the formulation of more suitable educational aims; (2) the selection of more useful content; (3) the improvement of the scope and sequence of the curriculum

in relation to the learners for whom it is planned; and (4) improved organization of the curriculum at the operational level. Each of these will be given some attention in the following pages. As an orientation to these considerations, however, it seems desirable to make a few pertinent observations concerning the nature of the emerging curriculum.

NATURE OF THE CURRICULUM

The modern elementary-school curriculum is dually based. First, it is designed to meet the needs of children for self-realization and second, its nature is shaped by the demands of society for successful living. The curriculum consists, then, of learning experiences which are assumed to make the greatest contribution to the individual development of children and, at the same time, equip them to meet the problems of democratic living in a constructive manner.

The curriculum is an instrumentality for controlled, developmental living which should take on many of the attributes of life itself. It is a means for guiding the interests and abilities of children into productive channels of effort which have implications for immediate skills and development as well as for the demands of later life.

Traditionally, the curriculum has been visualized very largely in terms of content. Although no one would wish to minimize the importance of appropriate content, the philosophy of the modern elementary school does not permit such a narrow conception of the curriculum. It is much more than textbooks and courses of study. It gets its meaning from the total learning experiences provided for children and involves all the activities and relationships which contribute to the planning, organization, and evaluation of these experiences.

EDUCATIONAL AIMS

One way to create new conditions is to make a change in the goals to be reached. One must always judge the effectiveness of the curriculum in terms of the aims to be achieved

through its effects on children. It becomes obvious, then, that a very significant aspect of curriculum study is that of re-examining educational objectives. This usually requires the broad consideration of factors somewhat beyond the matter of educational aims themselves.

Any thoughtful consideration of educational goals will immediately involve a discussion of the philosophy of the school. Since the philosophy of the school, in turn, is derived from an understanding of psychological and sociological foundations of education, the study of these basic influences is inevitably intertwined with the formulation or re-examination of educational objectives.

Frequently, the critical study of educational objectives can be best initiated through a consideration of some of the functional problems which arise out of the experiences of teachers in the school. Matters of pupil progress and promotion, evaluation, school entrance, or curriculum organization in the classroom provide fruitful springboards to the examination and appraisal of educational aims. Both from the standpoint of interest and productiveness, it is advisable to organize any phase of curriculum study in such a manner that there is an ever-present recognition by teachers of the relationship between the abstract considerations explored and the teaching performance in the classroom.

Since the preceding chapter contained rather detailed discussion of the formulation and clarification of goals, perhaps it is adequate merely to emphasize here the over-all importance of educational aims in the total process of curriculum study and to urge that these aims be re-examined carefully as an integral part of the continuous appraisal of the curriculum.

What shall be taught? This is one of the most pertinent questions for both curriculum workers and teachers. The very universe is filled with possible things to be learned but the time available for the organized educational activities of typical children is too limited to permit the systematic exploration of all possible avenues of desirable information. Therefore, some selection must occur in the process of de-

termining what learning experiences, of all possible learning experiences, are of sufficient importance to be included in the consciously designed pattern of learning experiences designated as the school's curriculum.

There has been a tendency among some persons to classify curricula on an "either-or" basis in terms of their being either child-centered or subject-matter-centered. This is unfortunate in that such mutually exclusive classifications suggest that persons who endorse the importance of the child may thereby be suggesting that subject matter, or content, is relatively unimportant. Such a point of view, of course, is entirely inconsistent with the modern concept of a good elementary-school program. Actually, content or subject matter becomes, if anything, increasingly important as the staff of the school attempts to provide a rich and varied program of learning experiences for all the children who attend school. The crucial question arises in connection with the definition of content or subject matter. Certainly, content is much more than printed materials from a book or the topics contained in an outline appearing in a course of study. Actually, content is the composite media used to bring about desired behavior changes in children. It may be composed of values, facts, and processes which relate human experience to environmental conditions and surroundings. In recent years, the concept of subject matter has been increasingly extended to include many types of printed materials, audio-visual materials, use of community resources, and many other types of experiences. Perhaps it may be helpful here to make a few observations about what should be considered in selecting subject matter:

1. The total environment of the child should be considered a laboratory for curriculum content
2. The selection of curriculum content should reflect an understanding of the more significant aspects of human experience and social living
3. The selection of content should reflect an awareness and understanding of the individual needs and interests of children

4. Curriculum content must be related to educational purposes of the school
5. Curriculum content must be appropriate to the level of maturity of learners
6. Curriculum content should be sufficiently varied in nature to serve as the basis for differing types of valuable experiences.

Although the teacher and the learners serve as guidelines to the selection of content as it is related to curriculum planning, several other factors greatly influence the nature of learning experiences provided by the school. Some of these are textbooks, curriculum guides and courses of study, the nature of the teacher's philosophy and professional preparation, the availability of supplementary materials of various types, community attitudes toward the purposes of education and the nature of learning, and the type of educational leadership in the school. It is also obvious that the type of curriculum organization utilized in the classroom is rather closely related to the kind of content which seems most useful.

SCOPE AND SEQUENCE

The first step in curriculum development is the formulation of worthwhile educational goals. It follows, then, that one approach to curriculum improvement is the re-examination of goals from time to time in terms of new demands of society and newly discovered or unmet needs of individual children. A second step in curriculum development is the identification of those significant areas of experience and understanding which best serve as the subject-matter nucleus of the instructional program of the school. This, of course, is the process of content selection. Some areas of knowledge and certain types of content are more suitable than others for meeting the needs of learners in our modern society. Therefore, the selection of content is a type of curriculum activity closely related to program improvement.

Another essential aspect of curriculum study is the determination of the scope and sequence of the curriculum.

The scope of the curriculum, of course, is the breadth of the content utilized in planning profitable learning experiences. It is important, as in selection of content, to determine the areas of human knowledge held to be most basic to the achievement of the major purposes of the elementary school, but it is equally necessary to consider within flexible limits the extent to which each of these areas is to be developed at the elementary-school levels. In actuality, of course, neither the content nor the scope of the curriculum can be, or should be, wholly preplanned in the modern elementary-school program. In such programs, at least part of the content is selected through co-operative interaction of learners and teacher as they plan and execute classroom learning activities. Similarly, the scope of the curriculum, in the final analysis, is determined by the breadth of children's actual experiences in seeking solutions to problems and in pursuing established goals.

Modern types of curriculum organization have brought about corresponding changes in the manner in which the sequence of learning experiences is established and justified. In schools of an earlier period, the sequence in which subject-matter was presented was determined largely, if not completely, by either the sequential organization of the textbook or by the prescribed order required by state departments of public instruction. Most curriculum content was developed and studied in terms of a logical sequence with minimum consideration of certain psychological principles. Another criterion for the placement of subject matter was that of proximity or remoteness. It was assumed that the more immature the learners, the more they required the element of nearness both in time and space. Still another consideration in the placement of learning experiences has been that of difficulty and complexity of subject matter. While these criteria still have some usefulness in the process of validating the gradation of learning experiences for growing children, other criteria have come into greater prominence as a by-product of the more flexible types of curriculum organization.

Continuity is now considered to be much more important than the specific placement of any segment of curricular content. This is particularly important in the development of the skills of the learners. If continuity is to be insured, then attention must be given to the sequential arrangement of learning experiences provided by the school. In the case of the modern program, however, there is an increasing tendency to relate the sequence of learning experiences to the stages of development and readiness of children. Some of the criteria utilized in planning learning experiences in such a manner as to provide needed continuity are:

1. *The characteristics of learners at the various levels of growth and maturation*
2. *The intellectual and physiological readiness of learners*
3. *The experiential background of learners*
4. *Interests of learners in relation to stages of growth*
5. *The needs and abilities of learners*
6. *The apparent effects of success or failure on learning.*

A rigid determination of sequence is likely to be undesirable in most situations, even if it were possible. The wide variation in the abilities and interests of children who constitute most classroom groups usually requires a correspondingly wide range of possible learning experiences both in terms of breadth of interests and difficulty of concepts and materials. In the modern school, it is becoming customary to establish a broad, general framework of curriculum content from which teachers and learners may select learning experiences most appropriate to their educational purposes and to the levels of growth of the learners.

In terms of the statements made above, it is not difficult to see the implications of curriculum sequence for program study and improvement. One of the greatest educational problems existing in schools today is that of properly adjusting learning experiences to the level of educational maturity of each child. In fact, studies of the problems considered most crucial by teachers often reveal a rather universal concern about the problem of providing suitably differentiated

learning experiences for children. The instructional problem itself is made more acute in that children who are forced to face educational tasks not suited to their abilities and interests frequently create other organizational and social problems within the classroom. Curriculum improvement, then, can be very profitably initiated through the study of children and their common and individualized needs.

CURRICULUM ORGANIZATION

The preceding sections have been devoted to the discussion of the problems of what shall be included in the content of the curriculum and when it can be most profitably taught to children. Of equal importance is the question as to how learning experiences can be best organized to facilitate learning in the classroom. It is fallacious to assume, of course, that curriculum organization in itself will guarantee fruitful learning experiences. The type of organization does bear a relationship, however, to what is known about how children learn best and to the extent of the possibilities for adjusting the curriculum to the needs of learners.

One of the most fertile fields for curriculum improvement is that of studying means for bringing the type of curriculum organization employed in the school into a greater degree of consistency with principles of teaching and learning which have emerged from educational research in recent years. As a guide to the study of curriculum organization a few principles are presented. Curriculum organization should:

1. Be consistent with the unified manner in which children learn
2. Provide for balance in the day's program of activities
3. Provide for the effective co-ordination of all aspects of the instructional program
4. Insure continuity in the learning experiences provided for children
5. Facilitate the development of needed skills
6. Be such that learning experiences are sensibly related to democratic living

7. Provide opportunities for teacher-pupil planning
8. Permit the wide use of a variety of instructional resources in learning and teaching
9. Be such that it provides for both individual activity and the development of co-operative work skills
10. Encourage processes of learning and teaching which are consistent with educational objectives to be achieved.

The traditional practice in the United States has been to organize the curriculum of the elementary school on the basis of subjects to be studied. Many schools still provide programs which are largely subject-centered. As research has revealed additional facts about the unified nature of learning and the role of experience in learning, a gradual shift in the emphasis of curriculum organization has been noted. This shift has been (1) from an emphasis on subject matter to a greater emphasis on the learner, and (2) from a school day divided into numerous periods according to the number of subjects taught to a day organized on the basis of broader blocks of time. These developments have served as the basis for the emergence of many different plans of curriculum organization, particularly during the last two or three decades. However, most of these plans are modifications of one or more of three general approaches to curriculum organization.

The first of these approaches is that of the *subject-centered curriculum*. As indicated above, the most persistent plan of this type has been that whereby the school day has been organized according to separate subjects. In the main, these subjects were taught as *compartmentalized elements* of the curriculum with little or no regard for any possible relationships with each other. As a more functional psychology of education found acceptance with educators, they began to advocate a fundamental *reorganization* of the curriculum which would bring more unity and usefulness into the school experiences of children.

As a result of the criticisms of the rigid subject approach by leading educators, a number of modifications were made in the subject-centered approach to provide some degree of

flexibility and unity in the instructional program. Some of the developments which have influenced the teaching of school subjects in recent years include the removal of content and skills which will not be used in everyday life, inclusion of broad fields of experience type of curriculum, recognition of the influence of content on the personality development of the child, recognition of the importance of readiness, adjustment of the work to the maturity level of pupils, increase in the number of instructional materials, continuous evaluation of pupil progress, and local construction of curriculum guides for the areas of experience.

Such influences as these led to what may be designated as the *broad-fields type of organization*. The trend toward this type of organization proceeded through such approaches as correlation and fusion which were plans for teaching two or more subjects in relation to each other. In recent years, marked progress has been made in the direction of providing for a considerable integration of the elements of a broad field such as the language arts or social studies.

A third general approach to curriculum organization is that of some type of unified plan based substantially on a primary concern for the child. In general, the *unified approach* is reflected in one of two types of organization, depending largely upon the emphasis that is desired: the unit approach and the problem-centered approach. The latter is sometimes considered to be one form of the so-called experience type of organization if its content arises out of the actual living experiences of children as they live, work, and plan together with the teacher in the classroom.

The unit of work, of course, may be developed around either a significant segment of content or subject-matter, or be evolved from a problem arising from the work in the classroom. In the former case, it is usually called a subject-matter unit and in the latter, an experience unit.

The effective achievement of educational goals held for children today almost demands some type of curriculum organization other than the pure subject-centered approach. There are many, however, who feel that the experience ap-

proach, on the other end of the organizational scale, has too many limitations to be wholly acceptable. One of the more sensible approaches to curriculum organization is that of the unit plan which permits the integration of a number of types of experiences around a worthwhile center of interest and yet allows time during the school day for attention to the development of needed skills through organized instruction in separate subject areas, if needed.

Some of the trends in scheduling the day's activities in conformity with the unit approach to organization follow:¹

1. Blocks of time, double or treble the usual amount of time reserved for lessons in formal subject teaching, scheduled for planning and working on unit activities.
2. More flexibility in the program to allow for shifts in emphasis, temporary problems, new features which may develop from day to day.
3. More variability in the program from day to day and week to week. Changes that are related to the smooth functioning of the entire school arranged through the central administrative office.
4. More periods during which the individual children within a class group work at different projects.
5. Programs developed around the age of the children, the time of year, and local conditions.
6. Instead of strident bells, large clocks in plain sight which both teacher and children consult.

TRENDS IN CURRICULUM STUDY

Since the days when the first questions were raised concerning the justifiability of rather complete standardization of the curriculum at the state level, there has been a gradual shifting of emphasis and procedure in curriculum planning. With increasing concern for the development of democratic ideals and practices in the classroom has come a corresponding attempt to inject more democracy into the process of curriculum determination and development.

¹ Adapted from Gertrude Hildreth, *Child Growth Through Education* (New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1948), pp. 127-28.

The earlier pattern of organization for curriculum study emphasized the role of the so-called central authority in curriculum planning. Typically, at the local level this meant that the administrator, or some member of the administrative or supervisory staff, formulated a structure for curriculum study and then assigned particular responsibilities to others for carrying on study in a desired area. This subsequently led to the use of a steering committee, or central curriculum committee for the purpose of assisting in the initiation, planning, and conducting of curriculum study projects. Under this general approach to curriculum study, the chief objective was that of producing courses of study, curriculum guides, and other materials.

Periodic revisions of instructional materials often failed to bring about the types of changes considered necessary for genuine improvement of the curriculum as defined in the modern elementary school. Therefore, more recent years have seen a departure from such mechanical steps to curriculum development in favor of more decentralized approaches. While production of curriculum materials is not precluded in this approach, the emphasis has increasingly been placed on bringing about changes in people as a primary aim of curriculum study. This evolving approach to curriculum study also has brought an increasing tendency to involve in such study all persons who are close to the educational experiences of children. This approach is based on the assumption that genuine educational improvement can result only as the values and competencies of people are changed for the better.

Out of the general evolution of curriculum study patterns has emerged certain recognizable trends. Some such trends are:

1. An increasingly greater emphasis on the local approach to curriculum study. Even within school systems, more and more responsibility for curriculum evaluation and improvement has been assumed by individual schools.
2. The increasing co-ordination of curriculum development with supervisory procedures and in-service activities in the local

school system. This presumably provides for more efficient utilization of personnel and for desired integration of individual efforts and ideas.

3. The expanding use of the group approach to initiating, planning, and conducting curriculum development activities.
4. A gradual revision of the concept of educational leadership in relation to curriculum improvement. This, of course, is implied in the preceding trend.
5. Increasingly wide participation in curriculum study of all persons with a legitimate interest in the quality of the school program. This includes professional educators, parents and laymen, and children.
6. The increasing use of action research as a basis for program improvement.
7. The increasing use of all available consultative and advisory resources. These include resource persons from the local community, from the state department or professional associations, or from colleges and universities.

APPROACHES TO CURRICULUM STUDY

The group approach to curriculum study has now gained the support of nearly all professional leaders in education. This method of attack on curriculum improvement, however, along with the argument for wide participation of teachers, parents, and children, implies the need for some means of organizing and co-ordinating the contributions of these various participating members; otherwise the resultant scattering of energies may produce such limited outcomes that the time spent in the effort is difficult to justify. Before beginning a discussion of some of the organized plans for curriculum study, a few observations will be made concerning the initiation phase of such curriculum study.

Curriculum study may get its impetus from many different sources and situations. One customary procedure is to tackle co-operatively some common problem in the school. Another may be that of encouraging experimentation in the classroom. When such experimentation produces new possibilities, then these new ideas serve well as focal points for group discussion. Another possibility for initiating study is

to conduct a survey of opinions and dissatisfactions of pupils, teachers, and parents regarding major features of the curriculum and prevailing practices in the school. Studies of the needs and interests of children, as well as surveys of community resources and services, are still other ways in which curriculum study may be sparked. Regardless of the means used for initiating such study, people work most enthusiastically on problems that are related to their own interests.

In selecting problem areas for study, it is wise to abide by a few considerations which have been demonstrated to have considerable operational validity. The curriculum worker should remember that: (1) curriculum study proceeds best when relatively few aspects of the program are studied at a time; (2) efforts are more highly motivated and more productive when problems for study are those which emerge from the group; (3) better selection of problems for study occurs when teachers and supervisory leaders work together in the process of selection; (4) long-range support for curriculum improvement is encouraged by the selection of problems of such scope that tangible results can be noted in a relatively short time; and (5) problem selection is closely related to the type of organized plan for study which will be most effective.

As indicated above, over-all operation of the elementary-school program offers many possibilities for questions and problems which merit careful study by the staff. Anderson has formulated a rather exhaustive list of possible focal points for initiating study,² as follows:

1. Recording information and reporting to parents
2. Studying selected children and adolescents in order to gain a better understanding of them
3. Making a study of the differences between pupils who fail and those who succeed in school
4. Studying the adjustment problems of pupils
5. Providing for individual differences
6. Making a follow-up study of dropouts and graduates
7. Studying the mental ability and achievement of pupils

² Vernon E. Anderson, *Principles and Procedures of Curriculum Improvement* (New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1956), pp. 155-56.

8. Making case studies of pupils from minority groups
9. Making a study of specific needs of youth in the school and revising the common learnings to provide for those needs
10. Studying the students' characteristics, needs, and problems
11. Selecting a variety of books for classroom libraries
12. Selecting instructional materials that promote better human relations
13. Utilizing and evaluating audio-visual materials
14. Discovering local community resources for intercultural education
15. Studying the community through searching out and listing all the possible resources and resource visitors and indicating how they may be used most advantageously in the school curriculum
16. Obtaining community reactions to the school
17. Studying industrial trends, job opportunities, and qualifications in the community
18. Organizing a social and recreational program for the community
19. Interpreting the school program to the community
20. Planning for and making home contacts
21. Improving the science experiences for children
22. Improving the social-studies program
23. Improving the language-arts program
24. Improving the science and health program
25. Improving the social studies-language arts program
26. Improving the vocational education program
27. Developing a program of citizenship education
28. Improving the music program
29. Planning by home economics and industrial arts teachers a pilot course in home and family living for a mixed group of boys and girls
30. Developing a new course in business education with consumer education, guidance, and general skills functions
31. Planning a work experience program
32. Conducting an experiment in adjusting the curriculum to the group that will not attend college
33. Correlating developmental reading with the rest of the school curriculum (secondary school)
34. Planning a core curriculum and the inauguration of the core
35. Determining the common learnings and the specialized learnings for the secondary school
36. Planning the junior high-school curriculum
37. Planning the program of studies and schedule for a six-year school
38. Studying the extraclass activities in the school
39. Evaluating the secondary-school curriculum
40. Adjusting the curriculum to the slow learners
41. Planning for the exceptional child in the regular school program
42. Setting up the goals of education for the school system

43. Developing techniques for intergroup study
44. Developing plans for grouping and group work
45. Developing a program and organization for the use of audio-visual aids
46. Organizing a plan for continuous curriculum study in the school system
47. Planning for integration among different subjects.

No elaborate plan for curriculum study and improvement is presented here. In fact, it is possible that curriculum improvement is more likely to result from injecting the desire for improvement and the spirit of co-operation into the processes which are already integral parts of the total school program than from attempts to impose on the situation somewhat extraneous machinery for curriculum study. In support of this view, some of the means which have enjoyed success in contributing to curriculum improvement are cited and discussed briefly. These approaches are not necessarily mutually exclusive.

FACULTY MEETINGS

The concept of the function of faculty meetings has undergone change in recent years. In many instances, faculty meetings have most frequently been used for administrative purposes such as making announcements and distributing information to teachers. Many schools are now using faculty meetings for the consideration of school problems and their implications for program improvement. In such cases, the faculty meeting can make a very basic contribution to curriculum improvement.

IN-SERVICE PROGRAMS AND STUDY GROUPS

Virtually all of the kinds of professional activities engaged in by teachers might be assumed to be parts of the in-service program of the school. There are some school systems, however, which have developed a rather formidable array of in-service opportunities for teachers to grow in service. The possibilities for relating many such activities to some aspect

of program improvement are quite obvious. Curriculum seminars, study groups, and extension courses in curriculum development all may be useful as a means of stimulating program improvement.

The study group, most effective when the size is small, provides an effective, though somewhat informal, means for teachers to study problems of mutual concern. Quite often these problems have implications for curriculum improvement.

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

Although the curriculum research and study carried on at the state and national levels has value, most thoughtful educators now agree that the individual school is the most functional unit for productive curriculum study. Much of the curriculum study in evidence today is found in individual schools or school systems. Although some programs of curriculum development are characterized by a more flexible approach, steps similar to the following are usually taken in the course of system-wide curriculum programs:

1. The determination of necessary administrative considerations. This is usually done in co-operation with the central office. Factors such as the following may need to be decided: approximate time to be given to the study, provisions for use of time during the school day, provision for release of personnel from classroom obligations, financial resources available, and policies governing use of outside consultants.
2. All-faculty orientation to the study, providing opportunities for the entire staff to pool ideas and to arrive at reasonable consensus regarding the school's philosophy, major objectives, and identified problems. This step may include provision for wide study of principles of child development, principles of curriculum development, and trends in curriculum organization.
3. The organization of a central curriculum committee or agency to co-ordinate efforts and machinery. This committee might assume responsibility for such matters as compiling results of

a problem census and formulating study proposals therefrom, arranging for acquisition and use of general curriculum source materials, co-ordinating the work of subgroups and committees, serving as a liaison agency between administrative and supervisory personnel and total faculty, helping arrange for the participation of persons outside the school in the curriculum study program, and evaluating progress toward goals co-operatively established.

4. Organization of special work and study committees. These groups may be organized in relation to special problems or to certain areas of the curriculum. They may be either horizontal or vertical in organization.
5. Organization of production groups. These groups might supplement the work of other groups in the co-ordinating and editing of any materials produced as a result of the study.
6. Evaluation of outcomes and their implications for implementation in the school system.

When materials are produced through organized curriculum study, they usually take the form of curriculum guides or resource units. In either case attention must be given to the formulation of objectives, both general and specific; the selection of recommended content; suggestions for varied types of learning activities; suggestions for means of evaluating outcomes; and source materials for use by learners and teachers.

CURRICULUM WORKSHOPS AND CONFERENCES

Some confusion appears to exist in the minds of many with respect to the nature of a workshop as in contrast to courses and conferences. This confusion, in part, probably stems from a recent tendency to use the term "workshop" in connection with many types of professional group meetings. Actually, a workshop has very distinctive features. It is derived from the same considerations that prompt the experience curriculum. In a true workshop, the participants identify their own problems and determine their own goals within a flexible schedule planned co-operatively by staff and partici-

pants. Effective workshop procedures require a reasonably long block of time, a wide range of resources, and the utilization of wholesome group processes.

Conferences and meetings of professional personnel and others, at the state, national or local levels, may produce some very real effects on program improvement. Meetings of professional groups offer rich opportunities for the broad sharing of ideas concerning educational research and improvement. Local school systems appear to be making considerable use of the conference for bringing stimulation to the staff. Such conferences frequently are held in cooperation with one or more colleges or universities.

CURRICULUM MATERIAL CENTERS

Although curriculum centers are likely to place greatest emphasis on the acquisition, development, allocation, and use of varied instructional materials, they nevertheless exert a considerable influence on program improvement. It is virtually impossible to develop the keen interest of teachers in instructional materials without creating a degree of concern about instructional methods and the organization of the curriculum. Thus, the curriculum materials center can be a valuable device for spurring efforts of the staff toward program improvement.

ACTION RESEARCH

The use of action research to discover the basis for instructional improvement is a relatively new development in American education. Sufficient action research has been carried on to date, however, to support the observation that it is becoming one of the more fruitful means for bringing about program improvement. Although some variability can be noted in the action research being conducted in different school systems, this kind of research is distinguished from other more traditional types of curriculum study by the following:

1. The objective of an action research study is to determine the amount of growth of the participating group—to improve the practices of those who are taking part. Those who start the research carry out the findings. *Purposes may change as the research develops; therefore, hypotheses may now be developed and tested as a part of the study.* To carry on the research, tools and instruments for gathering the data may have to be created. The whole rather than the sample population is usually used and only one of the variables in the situation is controlled.
2. Action research is carried on in an actual school situation, with teachers, school administrators and supervisors, and university and college personnel often co-operating. The setting is social.

OTHER SUPERVISORY ACTIVITY

It is not practical to include here all the possible ways a staff might organize itself to seek improvement in its school program. Such approaches as preschool conferences for teachers, orientation procedures for new teachers, and the participation of staff members in school-community projects all have implications for curriculum improvement. In the consideration of any or all of the above approaches, of course, there is a need for intelligent supervisory leadership. Over and above this function of the supervisor in relation to organized plans for program study, he has another very important role to play in the day-to-day support given to curriculum development and implementation. A supervisor, to encourage curriculum improvement, might:

1. Create a professional atmosphere conducive to experimentation and research
2. Develop a feeling of security among staff members
3. Provide some type of means for the sharing of successful teaching methods and ideas
4. Provide opportunities for interest groups to meet to discuss mutual problems
5. Encourage the development of a stockpile of curriculum resources

6. Provide opportunities for clinical sessions and for the active participation of teachers in planning these meetings
7. Give recognition to progress in curriculum improvement
8. Keep records of successes and problems in curriculum study and use them as a basis for improved approaches.

Curriculum improvement is a co-operative process. In schools which enjoy truly professional supervisory leadership and in which individuals and groups have learned to work together effectively, there is always the promise of even better instructional programs than those which now exist.

SUGGESTIONS FOR GAINING A BROADER UNDERSTANDING OF CURRICULUM IMPROVEMENT

1. Collect and examine a number of courses of study issued twenty or thirty years ago; then collect and examine some of the typical curriculum guides which have been issued recently. Compare them as to content and types of learning experiences they contain. Try to detect any trends which may be evident to you.
2. Try to learn more about the processes and potentialities of co-operative action research as a means for curriculum improvement. A good source is Stephen Corey's *Action Research to Improve School Practices*, published in 1953 by the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.
3. Identify all the resources in the community which you believe might be used profitably in curriculum study.
4. Visit a school which has gained recognition for the excellence of its program. Observe the type of curriculum organization employed.
5. Find out more about the nature and functions of an instructional materials center in the school or school system.

SELECTED REFERENCES

ANDERSON, VERNON E. *Principles and Procedures for Curriculum Improvement*. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1956. Chapter 8 contains a comprehensive discussion of the various ways of organizing for curriculum study. See pages 247-50 for discussion of action research.

BURTON, WILLIAM H., and BRUECKNER, LEO J. *Supervision: A Social Process*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1935. The entire text of Chapter 16 is related to the improvement of curriculums. Contains basic principles and illustrations.

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RAGAN, WILLIAM. *Modern Elementary Curriculum*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., Inc., 1953. Chapter 1 gives the historical development of the elementary school curriculum and compares a proposed "common-sense" organization of the curriculum with traditional and radical types of organization. Chapter 5 contains a set of principles to guide curriculum organization.

Research for Curriculum Improvement. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association of the United States, 1957. Entire publication is useful in terms of the characteristics of effective curriculum research and its implications for curriculum. Appendix A contains a bibliography on curriculum research that should be especially useful to curriculum workers.

STRATEMEYER, FLORENCE, et al. *Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living*, 2d ed. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1957. Entire volume is an excellent source book for supervisors and curriculum workers. Part V, "Working Cooperatively for Curriculum Improvement," is especially pertinent. Chapter 15 gives a detailed treatment of the evolution of curriculum study emphases.

Chapter 10

Working Together to Improve Teaching

Teaching is the process of administering and guiding effective learning experiences. It is both a science and an art. It involves an attitude of mind and a complex set of skills which, when combined in a wholesome personality, can facilitate learning to an unusual degree. While no responsible person would claim that teaching consists of any prescribed set of activities, it is worthwhile to note that there are certain characteristics which seem to be possessed by nearly all successful teachers. It would be false to assume also that there is any one type of methodology, or set of procedures, which will guarantee success in teaching. Yet, one needs little more evidence than that yielded by careful observation to be convinced that some teaching methods are better than others in their effects on children.

In spite of the current emphasis being placed on the importance of educational goals, the development of an effective curriculum, and the provision for adequate educational facilities, the fact still remains that the teacher is the most crucial factor in determining the amount and quality of learning that occurs in our schools. The following tribute, though presented with a touch of humor, contains some rather direct implications of the importance of the teacher in the lives of children:¹

¹ Prepared by Jane C. Butler and placed in *The Congressional Record* on January 22, 1957, by the Honorable Jim Wright of Texas.

WHAT IS A TEACHER?

Between the innocence of infancy and the dignity of maturity, our children fall under the influence of a group of people called teachers.

Teachers come in assorted sizes, weights, and colors. They have various interests, hobbies, religions, and beliefs; but they share one creed: To help each child to reach the highest possible degree of personal development.

The teacher is a composite. A teacher must have the energy of a harnessed volcano, the efficiency of an adding machine, the memory of an elephant, the understanding of a psychiatrist, the wisdom of Solomon, the tenacity of a spider, the patience of a turtle trying to cross the freeway in rush-hour traffic, the decisiveness of a general, the diplomacy of an ambassador, and the financial acumen of a Wall Street wizard. She must remember always that she teaches by word but mostly by precept and example.

A teacher may possess beauty, or grace, or skill; but most certainly she must possess love—a deep abiding love of, and respect for, children individually and *en masse*. She must love your little girl who has the song of a bird, the squeal of a pig, the stubbornness of a mule, the antics of a monkey, the spryness of a grasshopper, the curiosity of a cat, the slyness of a fox, and the mysterious mind of a woman.

She must also cherish your little boy who is inconsiderate; bothersome; an intruding bundle of noise with the appetite of a horse, the digestion of a sword swallower, the energy of an atom bomb, the lungs of a dictator, the imagination of Paul Bunyan, the shyness of a violet, the audacity of a steel trap, and the enthusiasm of a firecracker.

A teacher must teach many things: reading, writing, arithmetic, spelling, geography, history, music, art, health. She must also manage during her 6½ hours to teach manners and morals to children whose parents have despaired of the task during their 17½ hours.

A teacher is Truth with chalk dust in its hair, Beauty with an aching back, Wisdom searching for bubble gum, and Hope of the future with papers to grade.

A teacher must possess many abilities. She must not mind explaining for the tenth time the intricacies of two-place multiplication to the whole class, then explaining it again to the one child who wasn't listening. She must learn to judge between encouraging and pushing a child. She must sense what decisions to make and which must be made by the child. She must be steadfast without being inflexible; sympathetic without being maudlin; loving without possessing. She must live in childhood without becoming childish; to enjoy its great joys, satisfactions, its genuine delights; while understanding its griefs, irritations, embarrassments, and harassments.

A teacher must, each year, send thirty children to another teacher—

proudly, lovingly, sadly—and await thirty more with ready wit, love, and eagerness.

She must do all this while worrying about how to pay the utility bills, what to have for supper, whether her baby has the chickenpox, if her lesson plans will meet the supervisor's requirements, how Mrs. Smith will take the lower grades on John's report card, where to get the extra money for summer school, and who took the dime from Susie's purse.

For this, you will pay her more than the garage man, but less than the garage mechanic; more than the grocery clerk, but less than the postman; more than the ditchdigger, but less than the truck driver.

The most amazing thing about a teacher is that she wouldn't trade jobs with anyone she knows. She likes to teach.

The professionalization of teaching has brought about great advances in the kind of public recognition accorded teachers in most communities. Although the status level of teachers may not have reached that of some other professions, members of the teaching profession are increasingly accepted as persons of importance into the community and are frequently invited to serve in leadership roles. It is also gratifying to note that elementary-school teachers are no longer reduced to subordinate importance because they are responsible for teaching younger children.

Undoubtedly, a great deal of the change in the public's attitude toward teachers has been the direct or indirect result of better professional preparation of teachers which, in turn, has brought about improved competence in the classroom. As a whole, the profession of education can be proud of the teachers who man the classrooms of this country. In general, they are competent, dedicated people. In the education profession, as in all other professional groups, however, none is perfect and a few are clearly incompetent. In spite of the progress that has been made, then, in many states and communities, there is still considerable need and opportunity for improvement in the teaching function. It is the purpose of this chapter to give attention to some basic principles related to improvement of teaching, some of the major elements in teaching competence, the supervisory bases for improvement of instruction, and some specific measures for improving the quality of teaching.

PRINCIPLES RELATED TO IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHING

Contrary to earliest beliefs, teaching is a highly complex process composed of numerous interrelated activities and subject to many variable factors and influences. Although much research has been conducted into the traits and activities of teachers, it has been difficult to establish clear and significant correlations to many of the attributes of the teacher and teaching success as revealed mostly by the ratings of supervisory and administrative personnel. This may mean, of course, that little correlation exists between particular characteristics of the teacher and the quality of his over-all performance or, on the other hand, it may mean only that persons who evaluate teaching success are not very skilled in the process.

The above observations are made in order to suggest the difficulty of identifying particular aspects of teaching which, if strengthened, automatically result in improved teaching performance. It is equally difficult sometimes, though not impossible, to identify with certainty the exact causes of inefficiency in teaching. It is possible, however, to point out attributes and procedures whose relationship to the over-all task of teaching is generally recognized. As a basis for the further consideration of some of these factors, it may be worthwhile to set forth a few principles which seem related to the improvement of teaching.

The improvement of teaching is related to the teacher's philosophy. What a teacher holds to be the most essential values in our culture has a very direct influence on his competence and on his potentiality for improvement. The relationships established with children and the techniques of instruction employed in the classroom reflect the teacher's concept of education, the nature of children, the purposes of the school, the definition of the curriculum, and what constitutes successful achievement by children. A strong belief in the democratic way of life and a motivating faith in education as the chief instrumentality for perpetuating and

refining its processes constitute formidable resources for the teacher in American society. A philosophy of life which cherishes such values certainly will serve, at least, as a catalyst in the continuous process of educational improvement.

The improvement of teaching is related to the professional preparation of teachers. Teachers cannot do better than they know and certainly one of the means for getting to know more about teaching is that of professional preparation. Preservice preparation of teachers in the better teacher-educating institutions ordinarily includes attention to the development of the teacher as an informed and cultured individual and as a competent practitioner in the classroom. These ends are achieved mainly through courses in liberal arts, in the general foundations of education, and in the methodology of teaching, supplemented with actual experiences in elementary-school classrooms.

Due to the current shortage of qualified teachers and because many older teachers have not received the quality and quantity of professional preparation required of prospective teachers now, the importance of constructive in-service programs and activities looms large on the educational scene today and is closely related to improvement in the level of teaching found in some school systems.

The improvement of teaching is related to the teacher's understanding of the educational process. The obligation of teaching is to facilitate learning. If the teacher is uninformed about the psychological principles governing the process of learning in children, it is extremely doubtful that he will develop teaching techniques consistent with these principles. On the other hand, teachers who have developed a sound understanding of such factors as motivation and the role of experience in learning will be much more likely to search continuously for teaching methods which successfully make use of these facts about learning.

Improvement in teaching is related to the physical and mental health of the teacher. All aspects of the teacher's resources and personality may have some bearing on his com-

petence as a teacher. Certainly, the physical vigor of a teacher is an important asset when one considers the strenuous nature of teaching. Physical health also may affect the personality of the teacher in terms of such characteristics as cheerfulness and helpfulness.

In addition to the necessity for physical health as an essential attribute in meeting the responsibilities of teaching, mental health is also extremely vital to the manner in which a teacher is able to face the rigors of the task of teaching. Social adjustment and emotional stability are essential to the type of personality which is valuable in teaching. They are assets without which the teacher becomes easily upset and discouraged and with which he is far more likely than otherwise to meet day-to-day problems in an increasingly competent manner.

The improvement of teaching is related to the professional skills of the teacher as a professional practitioner. The idea that anyone who "knows a subject" can teach it has gradually disappeared from discussions of teachers and teaching. While the knowledge of subject matter is a valuable asset to the teacher at all levels of the educational ladder, an understanding of the methodology of teaching based on principles of child development and learning is vital to successful teaching. Teaching requires particular professional skills which can be acquired best through study and experience. As the teacher becomes more proficient in guiding the learning experiences of children in a scientific manner, he will, in the very process of developing such efficiency, open doors to further improvement.

The improvement of teaching is related to understanding of and skills in human relations. The process of teaching requires that the teacher's activity involves almost continuous interaction with pupils. The effects of the teacher on the efforts of children are influenced quite substantially by the quality of teacher-pupil relationships in the classroom. The teacher who is able to establish a high degree of rapport with children already is well on the way to productive teaching. On the other hand, a teacher who possesses many other

qualities for teaching but whose relationships with children are strained, usually finds the demands of teaching neither pleasant nor profitable.

Activities of the teacher which promote a feeling of confidence and security in children usually yield positive effects on the kind of learning that occurs in the classroom. The knowledge of what constitutes good human relations and the ability to put this knowledge to effective use appear to be basic earmarks of the effective teacher.

The relationships of the teacher, of course, are not confined to those with children. The work of the teacher also requires him to maintain daily relationships with other teachers, administrators, supervisors, and parents. The quality of these relations also have a direct bearing on the success the typical teacher is able to enjoy.

The improvement of teaching is related to the creativeness of the teacher. The resourcefulness and creativity of the teacher are revealed in many aspects of the teaching performance. The injection of new and exciting approaches to some of the more staid routines of the ordinary classroom can do a great deal to stimulate and motivate learners and to provide an interesting living and learning environment. The creative teacher never allows himself to become the victim of stagnation resulting from an unquestioning repetition of techniques from day to day and from year to year. Rather, he is continually searching for new and better approaches to the guidance of learning activities.

The resourcefulness of teachers also becomes evident in the types of instructional materials he utilizes in connection with the planning and guiding of learning activities. The truly resourceful teacher will discover, in the school and beyond, many kinds of material and human resources with which he can enliven teaching and learning in the classroom.

The improvement of teaching is related to work conditions and environment. Most types of human improvement spring first from a desire to improve. This desire, in turn, usually is a product of high morale rather than a result of

failure as might be assumed. The level of morale evidenced by teachers often is the composite result of many conditions. Certainly, such considerations as salary schedules, expense allowances for travel and attendance at educational meetings, provision of time for in-service activities, and funds for needed instructional materials affect the attitude of a teacher toward his job.

The immediate environment and atmosphere of the school also affect a teacher's feelings toward his professional responsibilities. Pleasant surroundings and adequate facilities, plus a positive type of educational leadership, can go far toward inspiring teachers to their very best efforts.

The improvement of teaching is related to the professional attitudes and zeal of the teacher. Many teachers do not appear to exhibit the degree of professional pride and enthusiasm that one might expect of a member of a great and important profession. Increasingly, though, teachers are becoming more concerned about the profession as a whole. The professionalization of teachers is revealed through the development of codes of ethics, through the increasingly influential activities of professional associations, and through the personal enthusiasm for teaching possessed by individual teachers throughout the country. Certainly, a highly professional attitude is an asset to the teacher who is seeking ways to improve his understanding and skill.

The improvement of teaching is related to the quality of educational leadership present in the school situation. Most teachers do not perform up to the level of their potentials. Whether the gap between the potential ability of a teacher and his actual performance as a teacher is increasingly reduced depends rather heavily upon the contributions of educational leadership to the situation. Through positive forms of encouragement, recognition of increments of professional growth already achieved, and concrete contributions to the instructional resources of the teacher, the administrator or supervisor can help a teacher grow toward his ultimate potential. Opportunities for in-service development of pro-

professional understanding and skills by teachers is another means of improvement which can be furnished through professional leadership.

ELEMENTS IN TEACHING COMPETENCE

Teaching competence is difficult to define except in terms of its outcomes, and it is equally difficult to measure. It is quite possible, though, to observe the processes and results of an effective teaching-learning situation and to identify some of the elements of the situation which appear to make the greatest contributions to the achievement of desired outcomes.

In a discussion of what he calls the "professional self" of the teacher Cantor² has identified a series of interrelated characteristics which he believes describes the professional self in the teaching situation. He says that the skilled teacher:

1. Understands the psychology of learning
2. Offers a professional service to the pupils, and consciously refrains from using them to serve personal needs
3. Keeps at the center of the teaching process the importance of the pupil's feelings, not personal feelings
4. Is concerned primarily with understanding and not with judging the pupil
5. Accepts students as they are
6. Realizes that genuine, significant learning stems from the creative efforts of the individual pupil
7. Recreates himself

Summarizing in terms of the teacher's attributes, the effectiveness of the teacher's resources appears to be related to being a person worthy of emulation, understanding the characteristics of children and how they develop, understanding the processes of learning, understanding the aims of education in a democracy, understanding the types of experiences which contribute to the realization of established aims, un-

² Adapted from Nathaniel Cantor, *The Teaching-learning Process* (New York: Henry Holt & Co., Inc., 1953), pp. 270-78.

derstanding how to organize the learning environment effectively, and possessing a functional knowledge of instructional resources.

PERSONAL ATTRIBUTES

Numerous studies throughout the years have sought to identify the specific personal qualities related to success in teaching. The nature of the measures of success used and the great variation in the conditions under which many such studies have been conducted make it difficult to interpret the results with any degree of conclusiveness. Some years ago Barr³ and others made a comprehensive summarization of correlations shown in studies of the relationship between measures of teaching success and certain general attributes and aspects of teaching. Though far from conclusive, this compilation indicates the importance of such attributes as considerateness, intelligence, drive, buoyancy, reliability, and attractiveness.

Studies made of children's appraisals of teaching personality and effectiveness have indicated the importance of traits similar to those just mentioned. Pupils appear to place considerable value on such traits as kindness, patience, fairness, consistency, sense of humor, wide interests, empathy, and general teaching proficiency. Among traits which pupils find distasteful are a bad disposition, unattractiveness, intolerance, unfairness, sarcasm, unreasonableness, and disinterest in learners.

There are many reasons for the importance of the teacher's personal qualities. First, the teacher's energy and attitudes affect the teaching performance. Second, the teacher's attitudes and traits may affect the response of learners to him. Third; and perhaps most important of all, the attitudes of the teacher are contagious, and his behavior is emulated by pupils. It is extremely important for teacher-educating in-

³ A. S. Barr et al., *The Measurement and Prediction of Teaching Efficiency: A Summary of Investigations* (Madison, Wis.: Dembar Publications, 1948).

stitutions to apply appropriate screening measures to persons expecting to become teachers and for employment agencies and supervisory officials to be aware of the importance of the teacher in teaching success.

UNDERSTANDING OF CHILDREN

The attitudes of the teacher toward children are often determined by how well he understands how they behave and develop. Many aspects of teaching such as the selection of learning experiences and the provision for individual differences are basically dependent upon an understanding of the characteristics and needs of children. Certainly, it is a mark of potential competence for teachers to realize that they must first learn about children before they can expect to teach them.

It is well to consider *the tasks of growth and development* which face the child in the period from infancy to adulthood and to be able to consider them in relation to the organized demands of the school program. Some of these tasks are: (1) mobility such as walking and running; (2) communication; (3) learning to be a social being; (4) learning about cultural demands upon individuals; (5) becoming self-directive and independent; (6) gaining needed skills; and (7) regulating emotional feelings in the face of reality. These are interdependent, of course, and have many implications for teaching.

If teachers are to continuously evaluate and strive to improve the quality of teaching, they also must possess an active awareness of the basic needs of children. Some of these needs are discussed in another part of this volume, but it seems desirable here to emphasize a few of the more common ones. The interested reader can find many excellent lists of children's needs in the educational literature. Some of the more commonly identified needs are security, belonging, affection, achievement, expression, sharing, and understanding.

It is not enough that teachers recognize the characteristics

of children at any particular level of the elementary school, important as this awareness may be. They must also understand the principles which govern growth processes and the implications of these principles for teaching and learning. A thorough understanding of the following principles should help to increase the skill of the teacher in planning, guiding, and evaluating the experiences of children:

1. Increasing maturity is an outcome of normal development
2. Behavior is influenced by both growth and learning
3. The total development pattern of a child is the result of several interactive aspects of growth
4. The development of a child is revealed through changes in behavior
5. The rate of a child's development does not remain constant but tends to slow down throughout the period from infancy to adolescence
6. Although the development of a child proceeds along a continuous curve, certain aspects of development are accentuated at particular periods
7. As a child develops, he tends to revise habits already acquired
8. Some of the characteristics of any stage of development are lost in the process of further development
9. During the course of development the child sometimes reveals characteristics which seem to be conflicting in nature
10. The basic features of individual personality, established in infancy, tend to persist through later years.

The literature in the field of child development is replete with detailed discussion of such principles as those appearing above. Such sources will help the teacher gain greater understanding in this area.

KNOWLEDGE OF THE LEARNING PROCESS

Although normal children will achieve considerable learning through the routine processes of living, both the rate and quality of learning can be affected by teaching. In fact, the establishment of schools in the country was based partially, at least, on the assumption that through the processes of

teaching, learning can be facilitated. Effective teaching may affect learning in at least three ways: it can facilitate the rate of learning, it can improve the ease and efficiency of learning, and it can affect the permanence of learning.

Our concept of the learning process has been modified considerably as a result of research and developments in the field of the psychology of learning. The shift of emphasis from that of faculty psychology to the more functional types of psychology quite naturally has brought a corresponding shift in the notion of how children learn. The flavor of the modern concept of learning as it applies to young children is beautifully captured by Moffitt⁴ in the following statement:

Thus a child learns; by wiggling skills
through his fingers and toes into himself;
by soaking up habits and attitudes of
those around him; by pushing and pulling
his own world.

Thus a child learns; more through trial
than error, more through pleasure than
pain, more through experience than suggestion,
more through suggestion than direction.

Thus a child learns; through affection,
through love, through patience, through
understanding, through belonging,
through doing, through being.

Day by day the child comes to know a little
bit of what you know; to think a little bit
of what you think; to understand your understanding.
That which you dream and believe and are, in truth,
becomes the child.

As you perceive dully or clearly; as you think
fuzzily or sharply; as you believe
foolishly or wisely; as you dream drably or
goldenly; as you bear false witness or the truth—
thus a child learns.

⁴ Frederick J. Moffitt, *Thus a Child Learns* (Morristown, N.J.: Silver Burdett Company).

As indicated above, one of the most useful assets of the skillful teacher is that of being able to translate principles of learning into successful approaches to teaching. A statement in a bulletin of the Department of Public Instruction of the State of Indiana³ shows this relationship very clearly:

SOME PRINCIPLES OF DESIRABLE TEACHING AND LEARNING

1. A child learns best when his own purposeful goals, needs, and desires guide him.
2. A child is capable of purposing only when the learning situation grows out of and is close to his experience and interests and within the range of his ability to comprehend.
3. A child learns best when he is free to participate in the creation of his own organization of materials as he satisfies his purposeful goals.
4. A child learns best when he can share in the management of the learning experience with other children in the group, guided but not controlled by adults.
5. A child learns best under the guidance of sympathetic adults who understand him as a growing personality.
6. A child learns best the meaning and interpretation of co-operative democratic living when he experiences it day by day.
7. Other things being equal, a child's learning is increased as he increases his sensory experiences within the learning situation.
8. The greater the number of avenues of impression and the broader the avenues of expression, the more complete the learning.
9. Meaningful experience is the basis of comprehensive learning and is the stuff out of which ability to deal in generalizations and abstractions grows.
10. Any specific learning is part of a total pattern of learning and the effect on the child is the result of the interaction of all factors within the pattern.
11. Learning is enhanced when opportunities are provided for

³ *A Good Start in School*, Bulletin No. 226 (rev. ed.; Indianapolis, Ind.: State Dept. of Public Instruction, 1958), pp. 19-23.

seeing relationships and when these relationships are drawn out and made clear.

12. Opportunities to appraise source materials, organize and re-organize data and information, arrive at solutions to problems, and evaluate results are important factors in learning.
13. A child learns best when he is conscious of his progress toward his own goals and those which society has set for him and can evaluate his own achievement.

UNDERSTANDING OF THE IMPORTANCE OF EXPERIENCES

The discussion of educational goals in Chapter 8 revealed the basic purposes to be served by elementary schools in American society. In the main, these purposes are derived from the needs of individuals in our society and the values of that society itself. Most statements of educational purpose, therefore, emphasize the importance of needed skills, an understanding of and adjustment to our culture, social sensitivity and skills, economic proficiency and understanding, and the responsibilities of effective citizenship.

The acceptance of such educational goals as these implies a commitment to attempt to discover and utilize learning experiences which will foster the realization of the stated aims. This is far different from the 3 R's concept of the curriculum which dominated early schools in this country. It requires that educators as a whole, and teachers as individuals, bring their best energies to the task of determining just what types of learning experiences are most essential to the educational development of American children. A group of leaders in elementary education, representing seventeen professional organizations, met with the staff of the Elementary Education Division of the United States Office of Education to discuss the means for improving the educational experiences of elementary school children. One of the conference committees studying the types of experiences children should have, prepared the following statement:⁶

⁶ *Educational Briefs*, No. 8 (October, 1947).

In order that boys and girls in the elementary schools may have a program of living and learning which will contribute to their personal growth and development as effective members of a democratic society, there must be included in the total and continuous elementary school experience opportunities for:

1. Developing Efficiency in the Basic Communication and Mathematical Skills
 - a. Reading with understanding and evaluative skills materials of an informational character
 - b. Reading with ease materials for enjoyment
 - c. Using the written word with skill in order successfully to communicate ideas to other individuals and groups of individuals
 - d. Using the spoken word effectively in order to communicate one's information and ideas in group discussions, reporting, conversations with individuals, interviews, etc.
 - e. Using numbers in daily transactions of living such as purchasing of goods; keeping of records, forms, and accounts; using allowances, etc.
2. Learning Techniques of Group Planning and Problem-solving
 - a. Identifying problems needing group consideration
 - b. Using the scientific method in problem-solving
 - c. Knowing where to find materials of use in solving a problem
 - d. Knowing how to use materials in the solution of a problem
 - e. Valuing the worth and contributions of each member of the group toward problem solution
 - f. Valuing differences of opinion and characteristics plus skill in using these differences toward problem solution
 - g. Developing skills of leadership
 - h. Knowing how to select and work with leaders
 - i. Recognizing individual responsibility for contributing toward solution of group problems
 - j. Using judgment on appropriate action to be taken in the solution of a problem
 - k. Learning to work with groups of various sizes and types.
3. Making and Taking Responsibility for Decisions
 - a. Participating in the solving of real problems related to group and individual living
 - b. Sharing in policy-making relative to decisions made and action to be taken
 - c. Working with both peer and adult groups in making decisions and taking action
 - d. Evaluating the consequences of decisions made.
4. Developing a Knowledge and Understanding of One's Self and Other People That Will Contribute Toward Attitudes Making

for Effective Group Living in Both the Immediate Social Group and the Larger Social Environment

- a. Valuing the worth of each individual as a person of importance
 - b. Having a feeling of friendliness
 - c. Knowing about and understanding the importance of the contributions of various groups to the culture in which we live
 - d. Understanding the basic needs of all people
 - e. Recognizing the qualities all people have in common
 - f. Appreciating differences in various cultures and their reasons for being
 - g. Growing in a knowledge of historical factors affecting living in our modern world.
5. Developing a Knowledge and Understanding of the Environment in Which One Lives That Will Contribute to Ability In Meeting Problems of Physical, Social, and Economic Significance
- a. Knowing and understanding the physical environment that will lead to effective facing of problems of individual and group living
 - b. Seeing relationships between man and his physical environment that affect aspects of individual and group living
 - c. Growing in knowledge and understanding of the modern technological world and the problems relative to it
 - d. Recognizing the factor of interdependence of all peoples in this modern world that make for problems in social and economic relationships.
6. Participating in Community Activities Appropriate to the Growth and Development of Children of Elementary-school Age
- a. Participating actively in planning for the care of the immediate classroom, school, home, and community environment
 - b. Having concern for and participating in improving the community health
 - c. Taking an active part in activities giving contacts and acquaintance with children of other lands
 - d. Investigating and taking action in aspects of community living which relate directly to daily living—adequate and proper milk supply, city water supply, problems of consumer buying, service clubs, etc.
7. Developing Skill in Critical Thinking Relative to Both the Printed and Spoken Word
- a. Using the skill of critical thinking in reading, writing, discussion, listening, and doing activities
 - b. Comparing different sources of information, statements of judgment, types of action, etc., as to their reliability and effectiveness

- c. Recognizing the difference between reliable fact and opinion
 - d. Making comparisons and drawing conclusions based on considered judgment of available information
 - e. Selecting materials, sources of information, and courses of action appropriate to the problem at hand.
8. Participating in Evaluation Experiences
- a. Evaluating one's own achievement in basic communication and mathematics skills in terms of competent democratic living
 - b. Evaluating one's relationship to other individuals, both to the peer group and to adult groups
 - c. Viewing one's own living in terms of a balance of activities and ability to find pleasure and satisfaction in the use of various media and types of activities
 - d. Evaluating group effectiveness in problem solving
 - e. Judging group effectiveness in living together.
9. Building a Wide Range of Interests That Will Contribute Toward Development of a Well-balanced Individual
- a. Using various types of media so as to have freedom and pleasure in their use
 - b. Having experiences with art, music, books, etc., that will give a sense of appreciation and value
 - c. Developing an independence of spirit and satisfaction in the enjoyment of various types of experience that contribute to the building of inner resources
10. Developing Personal and Social Values
- a. Recognizing the worth of the individual
 - b. Evaluating expressed values in terms of resulting action
 - c. Determining one's own personal relationships to the various groups of which one is a member
 - d. Reviewing the relationships between various groups in society in order to arrive at bases of living together
 - e. Constantly evaluating one's own set of values and recognizing the desirability of refinement and possible revision.

To implement such a point of view in actual learning situations, a number of different points at which further thinking must be done can be identified.

- 1. Individuals with responsibilities for preservice and in-service programs for teachers must help in translating such a guiding statement into terms of children's everyday living.
- 2. Groups responsible for various fields of subject matter must evaluate carefully the learnings in their own particular fields to see to what extent experiences from these fields contribute to such a total learning experience
- 3. There must be constant testing of curriculum activities in terms of what happens to children.

KNOWLEDGE OF THE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

The importance of the environment in creating favorable conditions for learning has been demonstrated many times. Not only is the proficiency of the teacher affected by the nature of the environment, but also children tend to absorb a part of all that surrounds them. Not all learning then is the direct result of organized instructional activities. Much of it is the result of the interplay of environmental factors with the child. Of course, the environment and the curriculum are not separate and mutually exclusive elements of the educational process. The concept of the school as a laboratory for learning can be implemented successfully only when the learning environment and instructional techniques are considered as closely related factors of the teaching-learning situation.

The teacher can seldom assume full responsibility for the nature and quality of the educational environment. Neither can he always regulate or control the elements which determine the conditions which surround the educational process in the elementary school. To a great extent, the teacher is forced to operate within the framework of philosophy and administrative practices found in the school. The importance, therefore, of these influences on the individual teacher's effectiveness can hardly be overestimated. Some value may be derived from the inclusion here of some characteristics of a good school program as they relate to the effectiveness of teaching and learning. Caswell and Foshay[†] indicate that the good school program:

1. Is conceived and operated as a whole
2. Provides well-rounded opportunities for living together effectively
3. Emphasizes democratic ideals and processes in the actual living of pupils

[†] Adapted from Hollis L. Caswell and Arthur W. Foshay, *Education in the Elementary School* (3d ed.; New York: American Book Company, 1957), pp. 54-71.

4. Is operationally related to the needs, interests, and abilities of the children it serves
5. Provides for all children guided experiences compatible with their levels of maturity
6. Is oriented to the community and makes use of its resources
7. Fosters the growth of all persons who participate in it
8. Is one which provides the materials and facilities needed for desirable learning experiences
9. Will be organized in such a manner as to facilitate the recognition of democratic values and their application in the life of the school.

Some of these statements imply the need for consistency between the outcomes desired for boys and girls and the ways in which learning experiences are organized. In an article in *The National Elementary Principal* dealing with provisions for gifted children, the following conditions which seem to hamper the development of children to their fullest potentials are listed: ⁸

1. Memorizing and verbalizing crowd out thinking and problem solving
2. Study of the long ago and the far away is not related to the exciting, changing world the children know
3. The resources and problems of the community are not reflected in the curriculum of the school
4. Children do not have opportunity to pursue their genuine interests in classroom and school-wide groups
5. Children follow directions exclusively and do not help plan and evaluate the activities of classroom and school
6. Emphasis is on copying and conforming rather than creating and discovering
7. Mass instruction has precedence over work with individuals and small groups
8. Materials are not adequate for creating, experimenting, exploring and researching widely and deeply
9. Classes are too large to permit personal, informed teacher guidance
10. Teachers do not have available the consultant help they require

⁸ Anne S. Hoppock, "About Gifted Children 'Everybody Says . . .'" *The National Elementary Principal* (December, 1957).

11. In-service education does not focus on deep understanding of the needs and motivation of children.

In selecting and planning learning experiences for and with children, the teacher must be truly cognizant of the importance of motivation in learning. If it is possible to operate with the current of pupil interest rather than against it, more learning is likely to result from the same amount of effort. This consideration suggests the importance of selecting means for initiating learning activities and guiding them in such a way that the independent efforts of the children are stimulated toward worthwhile aims. In the 1959 yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum,⁹ these "catch-hold" points in the organization of learning experiences are referred to as "organizing centers." The subsequent discussion of these organization centers includes certain criteria to guide the efforts of teachers:

1. The good organizing center for learning encourages student practice of the behavior sought.
2. The good organizing center for learning is economical in that it contributes to the simultaneous attainment of several educational objectives.
3. The good organizing center for learning encompasses ability floors and ceilings of the group.
4. The good organizing center for learning builds on what has gone before and prepares for what is to come.
5. The good organizing center for learning buttresses and supports learnings in other fields.
6. The good organizing center for learning has educational significance in its own right.
7. The good organizing center for learning is comprehensive in that it permits inclusion of several ideas and several catch-hold points for differing student interests.
8. The good organizing center for learning ties together students, ideas and materials in some meaningful fashion.
9. The good organizing center for learning has capacity for movement—intellectual, social geographic or chronological.

⁹ John I. Goodlad, "The Teacher Selects, Plans, Organizes," in *Learning and the Teacher* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association of the United States, 1959), pp. 55-58.

To summarize, the skillful teacher must be concerned with four important aspects of the environment and with how these factors are interrelated to provide favorable conditions for learning. First, the teacher must be concerned with providing the best possible *physical environment* with proper attention being given to the needs, comfort, and physical adjustment of children. Matters of lighting and acoustical conditions in the classroom have been found to exert a considerable influence on the productivity and attitudes of individuals.

A second important consideration for the teacher is that of providing effective conditions for normal *social interaction*. The relationships of children with the teacher and with each other are closely related to the establishment of a good working climate and an atmosphere which encourages individual responsibility and co-operative effort.

A third type of environment necessary for an effective teaching-learning situation is that of the *emotional climate*. This need is rather directly related to the preceding consideration. The types of control operating in the classroom, as well as the attitudes of the teacher, affect the emotional climate of the classroom materially.

Fourth, it is most important for teachers to consider the quality of the environment as a laboratory for learning. This aspect of the environment might be designated the *curricular environment*, although there is some danger that such a designation implies that other aspects of the environment are not related to the curriculum. For productive learning experiences, it is essential that children be surrounded with resources which present rich opportunities for learning. These range all the way from the use of the bulletin board to the utilization of community resources in teaching and learning.

KNOWLEDGE OF RESOURCES

The preceding paragraph suggests the importance of using a variety of instructional materials and resources in the teaching-learning process. Each teacher, of course, has im-

mediately available whatever resources his school system provides. The truly competent teacher, however, is not content with the limited kinds of materials often provided. He is eager to discover or develop with children any types of materials or facilities which may aid the learning process. If this search is to be productive, the teacher must continuously be alert to opportunities for extending his stockpile of instructional resources. Some of the sources of help in this regard are the school library, the public library, the instructional materials center, the community, professional associations, colleges and universities, and commercial publishers.

Since a later chapter is devoted to the matter of instructional resources, an elaboration of this facet of the teacher's activity does not seem necessary at this point. It may be said, though, in summary, that many feel that there is a very direct relationship which exists between a teacher's ability to locate and use a variety of instructional resources and his general teaching success.

BASES FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHING

Educators have not been wholly successful in their attempts to determine the specific factors which combine to produce competence in teaching. There are many indications that certain conditions promote or detract from the general effectiveness of the teacher. It is the purpose of this section to suggest at least five important bases for improvement of teaching: improving the morale of teachers, improving the conditions for teaching, improving the technical skills of teachers, improving the curriculum, and providing the teacher with needed resources.

IMPROVING MORALE OF TEACHERS

The feelings of teachers affect their teaching effort either favorably or adversely. There is reason to assume that many acts of teachers in the classroom are prompted more by feelings than by reason. Morale is considered to be the total

emotional and intellectual reaction of a person to a situation in which he is working. Working conditions affect the level of the morale of teachers as well as the quality of educational leadership provided in the school. Some of the conditions which usually contribute to better morale are:

1. Establishing a feeling of security in teachers. This, of course, is related to employment and personnel practices and other administrative considerations.
2. Working with teachers in such a way that each has an opportunity to establish status with the group.
3. Developing staff policies which encourage belongingness on the part of individuals.
4. Giving credit for the special achievements and efforts of teachers.
5. Being fair in the treatment accorded teachers.
6. Providing opportunities for each teacher to experience success in some aspect of the school's program.
7. Avoiding administrative or supervisory practices which destroy self-respect or the feeling of importance of teachers.
8. Providing for participation in policy-making.

IMPROVING TEACHING CONDITIONS

This consideration is closely related to that of the morale of teachers. In fact, the kind of working conditions which teachers enjoy or endure in a school situation has a great influence on the level of morale evidenced by them. In the main, any improvement of working conditions which shows evidence of a considerateness toward teachers and their problems is likely to affect teaching productivity favorably. When administrators provide reasonable measures to insure the comfort or happiness of teachers, or when they show special consideration such as substituting for the teacher in the classroom in order that he may participate in other professional activities, they are contributing directly, or indirectly, to the competence of teachers.

IMPROVING TEACHERS' SKILLS

There are numerous reasons why the professional skills of teachers are sometimes in need of improvement. Many teachers are unaware of new and better methods of teaching because they received their professional preparation some years ago. Others may actually exhibit a deliberate resistance to any suggested change in their teaching methodology. Whatever the cause, it is the responsibility of the supervisor to try to discover means for helping such teachers improve. If such improvement is to occur, two prior conditions seem absolutely essential: (1) the teacher must desire to improve, and (2) the teacher must be brought into contact with ideas and methods not heretofore considered. This has many implications for some of the individual and group supervisory approaches mentioned in the succeeding section of this chapter.

IMPROVING THE CURRICULUM

The curriculum of the school constitutes the framework of operation for the teachers. The nature of the curriculum and the activities of the teacher are factors which mutually supplement each other in a favorable situation. It is possible to find situations, however, in which the curriculum of the school, narrowly conceived and rigidly prescribed, actually inhibits the effectiveness of the teacher. Instead of being a contributing factor in teaching competence, it becomes a stumbling block to the teacher.

It is important for teachers and supervisors to realize that high-level teaching cannot well occur within the framework of a curriculum which does not reflect an awareness of basic principles of teaching and learning, and which does not allow the creativeness and resourcefulness of the teacher to operate. Efforts at curriculum development, then, should be much more than revision of the courses of study or curriculum guides. Curriculum development should be a process

which, directly and indirectly, contributes to the increasing effectiveness of the teacher.

IMPROVING TEACHING RESOURCES

It seems unfair to hold any worker to the demands of his job and then deny him the proper tools for doing his job well. Such is sometimes the plight of the teacher. He is expected to achieve the same outcomes as those accomplished in the best schools and yet he is not provided with the instructional resources needed for effective teaching. Any contribution, then, which a supervisor can make in providing adequate teaching materials or in helping a teacher locate better resources for teaching and learning often results in better teaching performance by members of the staff. In this process, neither teacher nor supervisor should overlook resources within the creative potential of the teacher himself, resources in the school, resources within the community, and resources from other professional agencies.

SUPERVISORY APPROACHES TO IMPROVED TEACHING

Two major ways in which a supervisor may contribute to the teaching competence of teachers in the elementary school are to work with individuals in such a manner that their best efforts are stimulated and evoked, and to furnish leadership in appropriate group approaches to staff improvement.

WORKING WITH INDIVIDUALS

The day-to-day attitude of the supervisor is an important factor in his relationships with individual teachers. Initially, a supervisor must create an atmosphere of confidence and security if he is to work productively in an effort to help teachers improve their practices. He must be willing to capitalize on the strengths of individual teachers without ignoring their problems. Some of the supervisory procedures which can be used effectively in helping teachers are:

1. Using of classroom observations intelligently
2. Arranging for the follow-up conference with teachers
3. Working with teachers on special instructional problems
4. Working with teachers and parents on behavior problems of children
5. Encouraging intervisitation of teachers
6. Suggesting useful professional materials
7. Involving individual teachers in special study projects
8. Rotating opportunities for leadership among teachers
9. Encouraging teachers to do professional writing
10. Encouraging advanced study by teachers.

WORKING WITH GROUPS

Many aspects of supervision require the leadership of the supervisor in working with teachers in groups. In general, group activity not only refines the skills of a staff in working together but also is beneficial to individual teachers who thus participate.

It is impossible to suggest all the possible ways of working together beneficially in a school situation. Among the types of group activity which have proved to be useful in many situations are the following:

1. Curriculum study groups
2. Orientation programs for teachers
3. In-service seminars on various aspects of the school program
4. Teacher visitation and group excursions
5. School policy committees
6. Workshops
7. Panels and forums
8. Community surveys
9. All-school research projects
10. Professional study through organized classes.

The resourceful supervisor will find many other opportunities, arising out of the situation itself, for assisting teachers in the development of teaching competency. In his efforts to do so, he will reap his greatest rewards if he is posi-

tive in his attitudes, flexible in his approaches, and specific in his help.

SUGGESTIONS FOR GAINING IMPROVED UNDERSTANDING OF IMPROVEMENT IN TEACHING

1. Collect several statements of teaching competencies. Analyze them to see which of the attributes or skills seem to apply especially to members of the teaching profession.
2. Find out all you can about the role played by professional associations in improving teaching conditions.
3. Study the catalog of a teacher-educating institution to observe the pattern of professional preparation for teachers. Study the relationship of this preparation to the competencies listed in (1) above.
4. Ask a school superintendent about the in-service activities provided for teachers in his school system.
5. Arrange a conference with a successful elementary-school supervisor to discuss ways in which he works to help teachers become more successful.

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Chapter 11

Working Together to Improve Learning

Learning is the process by which is unfolded the potential of a person to understand, control, and improve his environmental situation. Though it is mainly an intellectual process, it is so materially affected by other aspects of development that the means for improving learning must of necessity arise out of a consideration of many facets of the school program. The facility with which a learner learns is specifically influenced by the context of conditions which surround him in his activities. Some of these forces are within his control, perhaps, but many of them are not. What a child learns is also affected in considerable measure by the persons with whom he interacts during his life in school, home, and community.

The basic purpose of the school is to facilitate, guide, and organize learning experiences in such manner that the outcomes of learning are desirable and the process of achieving these outcomes as efficient as possible. As has been implied in the preceding chapter, the most basic conditions for learning are the capacity, readiness, and motivation of the learner and the most potent influence on learning is teaching. In turn, the quality of teaching is affected by such factors as home attitudes, school facilities, and administrative practices in the school. Therefore, any attempt to improve the rate and quality of learning must include appropriate attention to matters outside the learner himself.

This chapter will consider some of the basic principles related to improvement of learning, conditions for improvement of learning which are inherent in the child, school factors which affect learning, and supervisory helps to learning.

BASIC PRINCIPLES RELATED TO IMPROVEMENT OF LEARNING

Learning is not easily reducible to precise conditions or steps, nor is its improvement guaranteed by the application of any set formula. It is a complex process, susceptible to many types of influences, some favorable and some detrimental. Though no set approaches to the improvement can be imposed effectively on all situations, it still seems possible to make some generalizations which seem to serve as a theoretical framework out of which productive approaches can be developed.

Learners seldom achieve their learning potential. At first glance, this statement may be construed as a condemnation of educational programs found in our schools. The statement is not intended as such. It is intended merely to suggest that few people, regardless of the nature of their activity, seldom accomplish as much as it would be possible to accomplish under ideal conditions. Perhaps this is another way of saying that the net result of one's productiveness in most of life's activities is determined largely by the interplay of positive and negative factors which influence those activities. If most of the surrounding influences are favorable, a person is more likely to narrow the gap between his achievement level and his potential achievement level. If conditions are largely negative, there is a greater likelihood that the margin between achievement and potential will remain relatively wide. This observation has clear implications for learning and teaching. If one would facilitate learning, his basic approach must be to remove the obstacles to learning, and to inject into the situation those factors which stimulate learning. These will be discussed in more detail later in the chapter.

Learning is multidimensional in character. There are several possible ways of measuring the relative success of a learner as he pursues educational goals. In some instances, effectiveness of learning may be judged in terms of the breadth of understanding which results. In other situations, depth of understanding may be considered to be the best evidence of desired learning. In still other cases, the rapidity with which a skill is acquired may serve as the measuring stick to indicate the facility with which learning is taking place. Actually, though it is helpful to recognize these component dimensions as a basis for possible improvement of learning in the school, it is necessary to recognize that learning must also be considered in a more composite and unified way, if appropriate conditions for stimulating learning are to be provided in the school.

Learning is susceptible to modification. If one is to exert planned efforts to improve learning, it is well to distinguish clearly between learning and maturation. Maturation is largely the unfolding of inherited tendencies. It normally proceeds with time, quite independent of educational influences. Learning, on the other hand, involves the acquisition of understanding and reconstruction of experience in such manner that it can result in changed behavior. Both the nature and rate of learning can be modified by forces which act upon the learner. As far as the child is concerned, how well he learns is determined largely by his readiness for meeting required tasks. In turn, his readiness for learning depends on such factors as his background of experience, his mental ability, and his physical and mental health. It can be seen, then, that any favorable modification of the learning situation very likely involves some change in the modifiable influences which affect one's readiness to learn.

Learning can be affected either positively or negatively. A certain amount of learning results from the normal interaction of a child with his environment. The rate and quality of learning, however, may be affected by the influence of forces acting upon the learner and by conditions which surround the learning situation. Forces which tend to bring

purpose, meaning, or satisfaction to the learner tend to facilitate learning in a positive direction. On the other hand, activities which bring discomfort, or which seem to have no meaning for the learner, actually may serve as obstacles to learning. Unfortunately, some situations exist in which well-intentioned but professionally naïve teachers insist on methods of control and teaching activities which actually interfere with learning rather than facilitate it.

Learning may be affected by physical vigor of the child. Effective learning depends on the stimulation of the learner to engage in efforts which move him nearer his goals. Lethargy and disinterest are enemies of effective learning. Since some form of intrinsic enthusiasm is essential to genuinely purposeful learning, it is not difficult to sense the effect of poor physical condition on quality and rate of learning. The child who is weak, malnourished, or suffering from the effects of some chronic infection or persisting physical ailment finds it difficult indeed to generate either the necessary interest or effort to pursue his educational tasks in an effective manner. For example, any diagnosis of the causes for learning difficulties in children usually involves an initial investigation of the physical condition of the child as the first step toward identifying factors which are deterrents to learning for the child.

The effectiveness of the process of learning is related to the type of learning desired. It is probably inaccurate to speak of learning as if it were a single, well-defined process. Actually, it may be more correct, technically, to think in terms of *learnings* rather than *learning*. There is considerable evidence to suggest that the learning of skills is a somewhat different process from that of learning certain broad understandings, for example, in the field of the social studies. In a similar manner, the learning of facts for useful recall may involve a considerably different phenomenon from that of developing esthetic tastes or inculcating an ideal. The recognition of these possible differences means that attempts to improve learning may need to be formulated and planned in terms of more than one kind of learning.

Learning is determined by the educability of the learner. The intellectual power and capacity of the learner is a primary factor in determining his level of learning or achievement. A person cannot accomplish that which he has not the power to do. Therefore, the chief aim of schools should be that of helping each learner achieve as nearly as possible the highest level that it is his capacity to achieve rather than attempting the impossible by striving to bring all children up to the same level of learning in the same time. Just as a container cannot be forced to hold more water than its capacity will allow, no learner can learn beyond his ability to learn. This points up the futility of administrative and teaching practices apparently based on the theory that if only children will try hard enough, they can learn virtually anything they are asked to learn. This attitude is not consistent with the knowledge of differences in mental ability and in the learning rates of children.

Learning is affected by emotional factors. One of the greatest obstacles to effective learning often is that of the emotional factors which operate in the lives of learners. The concept of the unified nature of the learning process, rather universally accepted by modern educators, tends to emphasize the importance of feelings and attitudes in the total process of learning. Specialists who work with remedial cases in reading clinics frequently find that much of the reading difficulty is attributable to some emotional cause. Such things as feelings of insecurity in the learner himself, troublesome conditions in the home, or social antagonism among a learner's peers may have very unfavorable effects on the educational achievement of the learner.

Learning is affected by interest. For different reasons and in varying connections throughout this volume, the purposeful nature of learning is emphasized. This fact is basic to nearly all teaching and administrative practices in the school. Children, like adults, tend to pursue the kinds of activity that they think will result in goals important to them. In addition, they tend to exert a degree of effort in proportion to the relative importance of the goal. More simply

stated, a learner will apply himself quite diligently to a task which is important to him; he will work very reluctantly at an assignment in which he sees no purpose and in which he thus has little interest.

Intrinsic interest usually arises from purpose. It should not be overlooked, however, that the nature of the learning experiences through which a goal is pursued may influence the degree of interest evidenced by the learner. Genuine interest, of course, is generated within the child himself but the learning experiences can be presented and organized in such a way as to capitalize on and extend existing interests to the end that even greater interest is developed.

Learning is affected by teaching. Everything that has been said thus far in this chapter is related to this principle. In fact, it may be said that teaching is the process of stimulating, guiding, and administering learning. Children will learn, to a degree at least, with no teaching; they will learn a considerable number of things, perhaps, in spite of teaching; they will learn best, though, under the influence of good teaching. The quality of teaching quite expectedly ranges along the entire scale of competence. Some teachers are more competent than others. It follows, then, that some approaches to teaching are much more fruitful than others. The nature of teacher-pupil relationships, the breadth of resources for learning discovered and made available by teachers, the manner in which learning experiences are organized in the school day, and the provisions for adapting learning tasks to ability levels of learners, all bear very directly on the quality of teaching as a stimulant to learning.

Learning is affected by surrounding conditions. In an effort to emphasize the importance of teaching as the chief factor in facilitating learning, one may be likely to overlook the role of the environment as another very important consideration in learning. Actually, when viewed broadly, learning may be defined as the interaction of a person with environmental conditions and elements. In fact, one of the great tasks of teaching is that of providing an educational environment that will stimulate intellectual curiosity and, at

the same time, provide media which make the learner's activities meaningful and functional. An inadequate educational environment, be it in home, school, or classroom, not only restricts the teacher in his methodology but, more importantly, actually limits the approaches to learning which might otherwise be available to learners.

Learning is influenced by previous achievement. What one is able to learn at any given time depends very largely on what he has learned previously. This is true in two respects. First, many aspects of learning depend heavily upon the prior mastery of certain skills. For example, the process of learning to read effectively is based, to a considerable extent, on the sequential development of certain aspects of the total reading process. Second, the psychological effect of prior success on current effort is a consideration that cannot be ignored. Knowledge of previous success is an important factor in motivating effort and in establishing a desirable degree of self-confidence in the learner as he faces new tasks.

Learning is affected by past experience. At first glance, this principle may seem synonymous with the preceding one. However, there appears to be some necessity for pointing out the distinctive role of experience as a basis for learning. Although it may seem like oversimplification to do so, it seems possible to set forth rather concisely the basic relationship between experience and learning. Meaning is necessary for understanding and experience is the primary source of meaning. It seems rather clear, therefore, that the richness of the background of experience possessed by the child may exert a marked influence on his proficiency in pursuing the educational tasks with which he is confronted in the school program. Also not only is the experience background of the learner important; another conditioning factor of learning is the extent to which the learner can reflect on his experience critically enough to revise future efforts intelligently.

Learning is affected by opportunities for new experience. The breadth and depth of learning comes through the oppor-

tunity for pushing back the horizons of understanding through new channels of experience. A repetition of an experience, while valuable for establishing skill or fixing concepts, contributes very little to the acquisition of new learnings. Thus, two things become important in the selection, planning, and organization of learning experiences in the elementary school: there should be reasonable opportunity for new experiences within the educational reach of children, and new experiences should be associated with previous experience of learners.

CONDITIONS AFFECTING LEARNING ABILITY

Children differ greatly in their ability to learn and in their rate of growth. The same child is more susceptible to learning at one time than at another. Similarly, he is more susceptible to learning, and of course to teaching, under certain conditions than he is under other types of conditions. This makes it imperative for teachers to try to identify the ideal conditions for creating maximum learnability in a child and then to try to create and maintain as many of these desirable conditions as circumstances permit. Many such conditions are inherent in the child.

PHYSICAL STATUS

No worker produces his best efforts when he is experiencing ill-health. In education, this is an important observation for two reasons: (1) total growth is interrelated and thus, deficiency in physical status also affects mental processes and emotional adjustment, and (2) a poor physical condition in a learner may produce such a low level of energy that the child is unable to apply himself to the kinds of activity which result in effective learning.

There are at least two basic concerns of the teacher who wishes to create and maintain optimum physical conditions for effective learning. They are: (1) to eliminate, insofar as possible, physical conditions which present obstacles to learning, and (2) to promote the physical conditions which

make it possible for the child to learn more readily. Some of the conditions of the first category which call for improvement or correction are:

1. Malnutrition due to lack of sufficient amounts of proper foods
2. Fatigue due to lack of sleep and rest or to disproportionate energy demands on the child
3. Susceptibility to infection due to low level resistance or other factors
4. Lack of normal vision
5. Lack of hearing acuity
6. Speech deficiencies and lack of language development
7. Glandular disturbances, particularly as they affect weight and appearance
8. Orthopedic handicaps which interfere with normal school routines.

Problems such as those above have many implications for school practice. If administrators and teachers are to work for conditions which will promote greater learning by children confronted with these problems, they must give attention to such matters as:

1. Home-school relations which foster intimate knowledge of children and a co-operative attack on the solution of their problems as they affect learning
2. Cumulative records which reveal all types of pertinent data concerning the children in the school
3. Adequate facilities and staff for effective screening examinations for all children in terms of general health, vision, and hearing
4. An instructional program in health designed to provide functional health knowledge and help children develop sound health habits
5. A school lunch program which is based on both nutritional needs and educational considerations
6. A workable program for the control of infection and communicable diseases among children of the school
7. Preschool clinics for providing advance immunization of children and other health services
8. Provisions for dental hygiene services and for effective referral of cases needing attention

9. A functional physical education program properly geared to the task of developing healthy bodies
10. Provision for educational adjustments necessary for children having orthopedic handicaps
11. Available speech correction services either in the school or through systematic referral
12. Provisions for adequate heating, lighting and ventilation so that children may live and learn in an environment which is beautiful.

Any of the types of physical problems indicated previously may have a direct, negative effect on learning. It is quite possible, however, that the way a child responds to his deficiency psychologically may be more important than the handicap itself. Generally, a child reacts to a physical handicap in one of three ways: (1) he may accept the handicap and attempt to meet the demands upon him as well as possible within the limits of his problem; (2) he may resent the handicap in such a manner that he withdraws from any attempt at normal functioning, thus creating emotional and social problems; or (3) he may try to compensate for the handicap by exerting an unusual effort along lines in which he has facility.

MENTAL HEALTH CONDITION

The school must understand the vital importance of a child's values, feelings, and motivations if it is to assist him in his successful pursuit of educational goals. It has been demonstrated many times that feelings and drives have a very direct effect on the learning that takes place in any individual. A child who feels inadequate emotionally and unwanted socially cannot be expected to achieve in accordance with his intellectual potential. Therefore, it is highly important for administrators, supervisors, and teachers to enjoy good mental health themselves, to know the emotional needs and problems encountered by children, and to be able to provide conditions which contribute positively to the promotion of emotional well-being and wholesome personality development in children.

It helps to understand some of the emotional problems of children if we realize that many forces are exerting pressures on the child's development. The following statements *should help to illustrate this observation*:

1. A child is a physical being subject to innate biological factors and processes and to developmental limits, both of which are determined largely by hereditary influences.
2. The child is operating, at any given time, at some point on a developmental growth scale and is subject to the characteristic influences of that particular level of development.
3. The child is subject to the problem of maintaining his physical well-being and equilibrium through such processes as eating, sleeping, and attending to regular bodily elimination processes.
4. The child is a social member of a family group and thus is subject to cultural, social, and moral values held by the group.
5. The child is an interacting member of his peer group and, as such, is subject to the values held by other members of the group.
6. The child is subject to modifications of outlook and behavior brought about as a result of his own unfolding intellectual insights, his developing skills, and the extension of imaginative reflection.
7. The child is subject to the influence of a particular constellation of emotional conditionings which affect his behavior and experiences.
8. The child is subject to the effects of emerging concepts of ethical and spiritual relationships and values.

Although the above list is not exhaustive in scope, perhaps it will serve to emphasize the number of forces which tend to shape the values and condition the feelings of children. In addition to the pressures mentioned above, however, certain common needs and interests of developing children have strong implications for the promotion of wholesome personality in the elementary school. Briefly stated, they are: (1) the desire for adventure, new experiences, and zestful activity, (2) security in group relations, (3) desire for sympathy, understanding, and affection, (4) recognition and ad-

miration by his fellows, and (5) desire for success, mastery, and achievement.

If teachers are to provide classroom experiences which will contribute to the development of wholesome personality and good mental health in children, they must first be able to interpret the behavior of children in such a manner that clues for improvement are revealed and identified. Unfortunately, skill in interpreting behavior so that causes and motivating influences are identified seems not to be one of the greater proficiencies of many teachers. In reporting on the child-study program at the Institute for Child Study at the University of Maryland, Prescott¹ points out some of the most common errors of judgment made by teachers in their perceptions of the causes of children's behavior and in their judgments about possible solutions. They are as follows:

1. Teachers identified one causative factor underlying a child's behavior accurately, but they accepted this factor as the total causation of the behavior; that is they oversimplified their explanation of an action and consequently could not make sound judgments about how to help the child.
2. Teachers reasoned by analogy from their own experience when, in truth, the factors influencing the child's experience were quite different from those influencing the teachers' experiences. In other words, they lacked adequate information about the child and did not realize the need for it.
3. Teachers drew conclusions on the basis of mistaken ideas of what factors actually influence behavior, that is, they lacked scientific knowledge of how human behavior is activated and of what causative factors shape human development.
4. Teachers accepted a chance impression, a rumor, hearsay, or the statement of an unreliable or prejudiced person as fact—as a datum upon which to base a judgment without further checking. That is, they did not discriminate between facts and their own or their colleagues' mere opinions or prejudiced interpretations.
5. Teachers drew a conclusion about some causative factor on the basis of a single fact in a single illustrative instance,

¹Daniel A. Prescott, *The Child in the Educative Process* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1957), pp. 100-101.

when, in truth, other facts existed and were available which would have cast doubt upon this conclusion. In other words, they came to a conclusion without considering alternative explanations.

6. Teachers generalized and characterized a child on the basis of a single instance of his behavior, particularly if that episode had caused them unpleasant emotion. In other words, one strongly felt experience led them mistakenly to regard the child as characterized by that single unique situation.
7. Teachers accepted second-level inferences as true data, that is, knowing that one thing was true they inferred something else to be true which, in fact, could be true only if a second but unknown fact also were true.
8. Teachers accepted as always true of the child something which was true only under certain circumstances, that is, something conditional. They failed to perceive the conditions which caused the behavior and which limited the application of their conclusion.
9. Teachers projected into the child's behavior motives which the child did not have, but which the teacher himself had or which the teacher needed the child to have in order to justify his feelings and judgments concerning the child. Happily this error was much less common among teachers than most of the other errors of reasoning and was, of course, always unconscious.
10. Teachers accepted as absolutely true something which was only possibly true or, at best, probably true. This resulted in fixed attitudes and a closed mind. In truth, it is hard for all of us to act decisively, as a teacher must, when we know that we are only probably right.

In pointing out the types of weakness which creep into the efforts of teachers to interpret the behavior of children, it is not the intention to imply that teachers, as a whole, are inept with respect to their understanding and skill in the field of emotional behavior in children. Rather, the intention is to suggest that this is an area in which there is need for further proficiency and study by many teachers, supervisors, and administrators.

In spite of the need cited above, teachers are providing daily many types of experiences which contribute to the

wholesome development of children in terms of their values and attitudes. Some of the things which teachers, or parents, can do to promote mental health in children are such as the following:

1. Accept the child as an individual in his own right
2. Within the limits of desirable permissiveness, provide the security of guidelines of behavior
3. Encourage co-operative activities with correspondingly less emphasis on competitive activities
4. Avoid forcing a child to compete in an activity in which he has no chance at all to succeed
5. Study causes of behavior before prescribing for symptoms
6. Respect a child's timetable for growing up. Adapt controls and activities to the normal stage of growth
7. Provide suitable and harmless outlets for pent-up feelings
8. Avoid unfavorable comparisons with siblings or peers
9. Provide opportunities for the child to have normally pleasant relationships with his peers
10. Help a child to become self-directive and increasingly independent
11. Provide necessary guidance but avoid overprotection
12. Help a child to be sure he is loved and respected.

INTELLECTUAL ABILITY

There is little doubt that intelligence is one of the most potent factors in learning. The intellectual capacity of a learner is a direct determinant of how thoroughly and how rapidly learning occurs in an individual. While it is usually conceded that a child's ratio of mental ability to chronological age (IQ), as measured by typical instruments, will remain at about the same general level throughout the years normally spent in the elementary school, there appears to be increasing reason to believe that mental growth may be modified by personality disturbances or by environmental conditions.

One explanation for the seeming fluctuation in the constancy of the IQ, of course, may lie in the fallibility and specific nature of the tests used. Therefore, while the use of

tests of mental ability is a very useful device for getting indicative evidence of what can rightfully be expected from children, it is quite important that the teacher avoid such a rigid interpretation of test results that his efforts to improve learning conditions for the child are hampered by a feeling of resignation concerning the child's intellectual status. In this respect, teachers should note the intellectual processes of the child from day to day. Some of these processes appear to be rather reliable indications of favorable mental development.

The child's intelligence is evidenced by the manner and quality of his responses to problem situations. The level of mental ability is revealed both by the quality of his solution to a problem and the nature of the process of responding. Some of the types of responding which reveal mental development, and which have direct implications for the planning and organization of learning experiences are: (1) increasing ability to analyze a situation into its basic elements; (2) increasing ability to make generalizations; (3) increasing ability to detect absurdities and irrelevancies in a situation; (4) a shift from ability to think only in concrete terms to the ability to think abstractly; and (5) increasing ability to see existing relationships among elements of a total situation or problem.

Within the limits established by heredity, of course, intelligence develops with use. This indicated relationship between structure and function emphasizes the need for each teacher to be aware of not only the parental background of the child but also his previous experiences. There is little doubt that the quality of the educational experiences provided for children has a very direct bearing on their mental growth.

Obviously, children are not equally educable. This recognition invariably and justifiably raises questions about the effectiveness of standardized curricula, promotional policies based on grade standards, and many other school practices which still prevail in many quarters. Steps should be taken to adjust learning experiences to the needs, capacities, and

rates of development of children rather than attempting to adjust all children to arbitrary, preconceived sets of learning experiences organized in a manner often incompatible with what is known about children and the way they develop. If this is done, it requires: (1) knowledge of the differences in the abilities of children; (2) knowledge of the means for studying intellectual characteristics of children; (3) planning a range of learning experiences which corresponds to the range of ability of children found in the classroom; (4) provision for a range of instructional materials suited to all levels of intellectual ability represented in the classroom; (5) the planning of workable ways of differentiating instruction; (6) revision of standards of educational success; and (7) administrative practices in relation to evaluation, pupil progress, and reporting which are motivated by a consciousness of the goals of individual children.

INTEREST

No phase of the teacher's work is more significant than that of identifying the concerns and interests of learners and utilizing them effectively in selecting and planning learning experiences. To a great extent, the sensitivity of the teacher to these concerns, needs, and interests determines the quality and ultimate outcomes of learning experience. The observation that better learning results when the natural concerns of learners are utilized in educational processes appears to be indisputable. Assuming that this is true, then, teachers should use all available means for discovering the interests and concerns of the children they teach.

There are many ways in which the interests and concerns of children are revealed. Some of their basic interests, of course, will permeate their discussions and conversations. Predominating interests will be expressed directly while the more subtle concerns may enter the conversation of the child only casually and occasionally. Classroom discussions, and even arguments on the playground, often shed light on some of the child's concerns and cultural leanings. The objects

which children select to bring to school to share with their friends and classmates frequently indicate some of their prevailing interests.

Many of the concerns of children originate from some source outside the classroom. The teacher, in order to be alert to possibilities for directing children's interests into constructive learning channels, must know something about the child's interests and activities in the home and community. Scouting affiliations and interests, for example, may be used rather effectively in motivating learners and in developing concepts of leadership in the group. The discovery and analysis of hobbies is another avenue to the possible use of children's interests in the development of worthwhile learning experiences.

The role of the teacher in relation to interests of learners is not confined to identifying and incorporating existing interests into the educational process. A second responsibility is that of providing opportunity and encouragement for the development of new interests of a desirable nature. This becomes doubly important in view of the fact that many interests of children are temporary in terms of particular stages of development. As old interests pass, children need subtle guidance in the selection and development of new concerns, interests and goals.

Some confusion between interest and incentive appears to exist in the minds of many people. While they are closely related, they are not synonymous in their connections with learning and teaching. Interest, simply stated, is an indwelling and motivating concern. An incentive, on the other hand, is a stimulant to action. Interests may be either direct or indirect and, similarly, incentives may be intrinsic or artificial and extrinsic. In considering or evaluating the use of particular types of incentives in connection with learning experiences, one should consider the extent to which the incentive will stimulate all learners involved in the activity, the degree to which the incentive actually stimulates constructive effort in learners, the degree to which the incentive will stimulate the projection of effort beyond the appeal of

the incentive itself, and the nature of the attendant outcomes which accompany, or result from, the use of the incentive.

Caution must be exercised in the acceptance and use of incentives to insure that negative by-products are not of such nature that they destroy or counteract any possible benefits which might have otherwise been gained from the learning activity. Unwisely used, incentives may develop negative attitudes in children toward themselves, toward their peers, and toward the teacher and school.

SCHOOL FACTORS AFFECTING LEARNING

The factors and conditions which affect in some manner the complex process of learning are so numerous that it is impossible to enumerate them. Certainly it is not the purpose of this volume to present an exhaustive treatment of all of these possible conditioners of learning. A few categories of these influencing factors, however, seem to be so vitally related to improvement of learning that they merit particular attention. These are the physical environment of the school, the types of relationships in the school, the concept of discipline in the school, and instructional and administrative practices in the school.

PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT

The management of the physical features of the classroom is not an end in itself. The only basis for judging a classroom environment to be good is that it promotes, encourages, and supports desirable learning experiences to a maximum degree. This means that the teacher, in creating and managing the physical features and organizational routines of the classroom must have a clear notion of the types of environment most conducive to learning. It is usually helpful if teachers will remember the basic reasons for classroom organization. At least three of these are to provide a pleasant and systematic atmosphere in which to live and learn, to provide optimum economy of time and effort in relation to out-

comes, and to promote the achievement of educational goals, both immediate and long range.

The necessity for a school environment that is rich in educational interest and opportunity was discussed briefly in an earlier chapter. Thus, it seems unnecessary to belabor this aspect of the physical environment any further at this point. It may be well to reiterate, for the sake of emphasis, that the teacher is the key to the kind of atmosphere which prevails in the classroom and most improvements in the educational atmosphere directly or indirectly are related to the teacher's understanding and efficiency.

Any attempt to describe in detail just what constitutes an ideal classroom environment or exactly what measures will insure proper working conditions, even if possible, would be in violation with the principle of adapting environmental facilities to the needs and objectives which determine the nature of the program. It may be helpful, though, to indicate some of the elements of the situation which well may be considered in determining the suitability of certain conditions and practices. Some of these are: (1) the maturity level of the classroom group; (2) the size of the classroom group; (3) the size and adequacy of the classroom space; (4) available facilities within the classroom; (5) the degree to which the classroom is self-contained; (6) the general policies of the school; (7) the ability and experience of the teacher; and (8) the experience of the children in self-direction.

Statements made earlier have implied the relationship of the physical well-being and comfort of children to their achievement. It may be desirable to point out a few of the particular aspects of the physical environment which seem most closely related to proper conditions for learning. Some of these are:

1. Adequacy and flexibility of room arrangement
2. Proper provisions for seating in terms of posture and comfort
3. Illumination of the classroom with adequate provisions for amount and quality of light and for the elimination of glare

4. Elimination of conditions which contribute to eyestrain
5. Elimination of conditions which cause hearing difficulty
6. Adequacy of space in terms of the nature of learning activities
7. Adequate provisions for heating and ventilation as well as for elimination of annoying elements such as odors and smoke
8. Pleasant decoration of classroom in terms of color and reflection
9. Adequacy of space for display of instructional materials
10. Adequacy of work space—individual and group.

HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS

Education is a process involving almost continuous interaction of the persons engaged in it. So important is interaction to learning that the effectiveness of learning experiences is determined very largely by the quality of human relationships operative in the school.

The child begins life as a human being who is largely non-social. Although he is quite dependent on others through his earliest years for the fulfillment of his needs, his motivations stem predominantly from highly egocentric considerations. Actually, the child must learn to be a social being by living, playing and working with others. His social development proceeds normally through rather definable stages. Through the first stage he is rather oblivious to social stimulation which arises from sources outside himself. During the second stage, he begins to gain a sense of the advantage of social interaction and thus proceeds to establish means for social communication and co-operation. Ultimately, it is hoped that he reaches the stage in which feelings of reciprocity, empathy, and mutual respect enter into his relations with those around him. As might be expected, children vary in the rate at which they develop social sensitivity and skills, and there is some evidence to suggest that the social environment is a definite factor in this development.

The early years of the child in the elementary school are marked by his tendency to avoid the blame for unfavorable

consequences of his behavior by engaging in evasiveness, blame-shifting, or even falsehoods. As he grows toward maturity, with normal opportunities for social interaction, he will become much less critical of others and more analytical concerning his own attitudes toward others. In other words, as a child begins to understand his peers better, his understanding of himself also increases accordingly. Conflicts among children are usually based on an inadequate mutual understanding and on an insensitivity to the feelings of others. As in other types of learning, experience is basic to the acquisition of the ability to perform effectively as a member of the family, school, or community group. In this respect, the school is a laboratory in which children may learn to live constructively with others.

For optimum social development, children need two basic things. The first is an ample number of opportunities for gaining experience within a group structure. The second is sympathetic guidance in social situations as they arise from day to day. Even among the younger children in the elementary school, teachers can begin to provide experiences which assist children in developing the unfolding skills of living and working together effectively. Teachers should help children learn to:

1. Plan together effectively and agreeably
2. Share ideas
3. Offer constructive criticisms impersonally
4. Take criticism without resentment
5. Respect the values and opinions of others
6. Be a leader or follower as the occasion demands.

Many types of experience can contribute to the development of skills in human relations. The most effective kind of learning, of course, comes from actual firsthand experiences gained from being members of functional groups such as the family and various school groups. Through association with others the child gradually comes to understand how his words or deeds may affect them. He learns that vigorous insistence upon having his own way tends to de-

crease the degree of acceptance shown him by the group, while a more gracious attitude seems to win friends for him.

Aside from direct experience, there are some other means whereby considerable help can be given to children in their attempts to become more proficient in their peer relationships. The sociodrama has been found to be quite effective as a means of sensitizing children to the ideas and feelings of others. Role playing and dramatizations which permit children to assume the roles of other people, and to attempt to act as they would act, is one of the more promising approaches to the establishment of social sensitivity in children. Discussing the motives of characters in stories read will often contribute to a better social understanding by children. Similarly, reading and writing autobiographies is another worthwhile activity for the social development of children.

The preceding paragraphs have dealt primarily with the relationships of children with each other. Perhaps an even more impelling consideration in the classroom is that of the relationships between children and teacher. Many factors contribute to the quality of teacher-pupil relationships in the classroom. These factors are so numerous, in fact, and their interrelationships so complex, that any comprehensive delineation of them appears to be impossible within the purposes and scope of this volume. A few conditions which have been found to affect teacher-pupil relationships are identified and briefly discussed here.

1. The previous experiences of the pupils with other teachers. They have had experiences with teachers who have been considered wonderful; they have had experiences with others whom they considered only as persons to be endured.
2. The nature of first impressions created in the classroom. It is important that teachers be extremely cautious to set a tone of friendliness, confidence, and fairness during the first days of the school year.
3. What the teacher expects of the pupils. Children tend to live up to the expectations of persons they respect. If it is evident that the teacher fully expects to work co-operatively with pupils, and vice-versa, there is far less chance of conflict between teacher and pupils.

4. The role of leadership and guidance assumed by the teacher. While children resent domination, they welcome direction and leadership, and they tend to react favorably to suggestions and regulations from which they obviously benefit.
5. The degree of success achieved by pupils. If pupils can sense that the teacher is dedicated to the task of helping them succeed, and teachers will make every effort to provide some avenue through which each child can taste some degree of success, the level of the teacher-pupil relationship can be raised materially.
6. The philosophy of the teacher. What a teacher believes to be the basic purposes of education, the nature of the child, and the role of the school are all indirect determinants of the relations which are sought and fostered in the classroom.
7. The personal and social attributes of the teacher. Physical vigor, a friendly but firm manner, and an attitude of confidence are requisites to good relations with children.

CONCEPT OF DISCIPLINE

When citing factors and conditions which affect the quality of human relationships in the classroom, none is more important than the teacher's concept of discipline. Each classroom represents a miniature society in which the age-old attempt to balance individual freedom and common welfare is being made from day to day. The concept of discipline which the teacher holds undoubtedly bears some relationship to the kinds of learning experiences provided for children. Restricted concepts of classroom control usually are quite incompatible with the broad, flexible organization of learning experiences. Thus, both the nature and scope of learning experiences may be affected by the manner in which the teacher attempts to create a constructive and well-regulated working situation.

Two main responsibilities face the teacher in his efforts to establish and maintain a wholesome environment based on positive concepts of classroom regulation and control. First, he must be able to offer constructive guidance to individual children with behavior problems. Second, he must be able to establish conditions in the classroom which are conducive

to desirable behavior, and which tend to prevent undesirable behavior.

In dealing with individuals who demonstrate a type of behavior that is socially unacceptable, the teacher must attempt to reconcile a personal interest in the child with an objective point of view toward his behavior and its probable causes. The truly effective teacher is careful to analyze a child's behavior in such a manner as to discover the true causes of questionable conduct, rather than attempting to deal with the overt symptoms.

The great majority of children in the elementary school behave in the manner to be expected of enthusiastic, growing personalities. Their conduct usually falls within the range normally required for effective group living and learning. Occasionally, however, teachers are confronted with the necessity of coping with problems of behavior outside the usual norms of social acceptability in a well-regulated classroom. These problems are usually of two types: problems of aggressiveness and disturbing overt behavior, and problems of the withdrawn personality. The wise teacher with a clinical knowledge of child behavior will soon discover that the former type of behavior expressed in fighting, bullying, and boisterous conduct is usually an outward expression of inward feelings of insecurity. Such a teacher, while taking necessary steps to protect other children from hazards which may result from impulsive acts by aggressive individuals, will also attempt to provide opportunities for such individuals to engage in constructive activities which give them status among their peers, confidence in themselves, and the knowledge of the teacher's persisting faith in them.

The seriousness of the problem of extreme withdrawal in children sometimes goes unnoticed. In fact, the extremely quiet and indifferent child is even appreciated by a teacher who is struggling with the dilemma of the unduly noisy and overcrowded classroom. Teachers need to be alert to the possible causes of such behavior, whether it be fearfulness, shyness, or disinterest growing out of a long history of failure by the child. Once the cause of the apparent lack of

interest is discovered, steps can be taken to capitalize on the interests of the learner, if any, or to provide for his gradual participation in group activity suited to his ability. As a rule, punishment is not a very effective way of dealing with individual behavior problems in the classroom. While punishment has some effect as a deterrent to undesirable behavior, it often produces secondary effects on the child which are far from wholesome and seldom provides the basis for changed behavior in the future.

The old adage that "an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure" has real implications for the establishment and maintenance of acceptable behavior patterns in the classroom. Classroom activities and teaching practices which have a negative effect upon the attitudes of children are likely to contribute to some type of nonconforming conduct. Some of the practices and considerations which seem closely related to the prevention of discipline problems in the classroom follow:²

1. At the beginning of the year, learn the names of the children quickly.
2. With the help of the children, arrange the classroom favorably for work, giving particular attention to—
 - a. Grouping chairs and tables as activity demands or, if desks are fastened to floors, using same materials in same area of room.
 - b. Arranging the classroom for good group living.
3. Manifest a courteous, friendly attitude toward all children.
4. Guide each child into active participation in a committee, small group, or general class at least once during each phase of the work.
5. Establish friendly relationships with children by—
 - a. Talking freely with children.
 - b. Listening to the spontaneous comments children make and the ideas and opinions they express as they talk of in-school and out-of-school experiences.
 - c. Interpreting the stories they write and the pictures they draw in order to gain clues to their interests and needs.

² Marie A. Mehl, Hubert H. Mills, and Harl R. Douglass, *Teaching in Elementary School* (2d ed.; New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1958), pp. 144-46.

6. Avoid extreme forms of—
 - a. Competition among students.
 - b. Pupil dependence upon teacher.
 - c. Group pride.
7. Use praise judiciously. When deserved, do not hesitate to make comments on written work and in presence of supervisor or principal.
8. Set standards of achievement in terms of the child's ability.
9. Accept suggestions of children made in group discussions for changes in the classroom situation.
10. Adapt learning activities to the abilities and needs of the children in the group.
11. Utilize children's interests as point of departure in planning, managing, and appraising their activities.
12. Encourage pupil participation in planning pupil activities.
13. Avoid harshness, sarcasm, or nagging.
14. A deterrent to child misbehavior lies in the effective handling of classroom routine—checking attendance, collecting and distributing papers, and arranging instructional materials for prompt and expedient use.
15. Alertness on the part of the teacher to what is happening in the classroom at all times is essential. Eyes that see and ears that hear what is transpiring prevent incipient misbehavior from becoming serious disaffection.
16. The possibility of pupil inattention in the group discussions is greatly minimized if the discussion is truly a clearing-house for ideas. A repetition of ideas with which children are already familiar is not conducive to genuine interest. When children cannot hear the child who is reciting because of the poor seating arrangement of the class or because of his failure to speak in audible tones, they have a tendency to lapse into habits of inattention and indifference.
17. Children who are given a part in planning and evaluating their classroom activities have less inclination and time for misconduct.
18. Announcing in advance what will happen in the event of misbehavior precludes the possibility of treatment in terms of the needs of the offender.

The guidance approach to the social and emotional problems of children in the classroom is basic to the elimination

of attitudes which interfere with maximum learning. In many instances, this is an area of understanding and activity in which the competent supervisor can render genuine professional help to harried teachers.

INDIVIDUALIZED INSTRUCTION

The chief task of the teacher is to provide challenging learning experiences which correspond to the ability and experience levels of children. Time spent in trying to teach children things which they cannot learn is the ultimate in wastefulness and futility. The real problem, of course, is that of providing individualized learning experiences for children within a framework of mass education. While no one to date has discovered the ideal solution to this problem, much progress has been made. Some of the approaches which have been found by teachers to have value are:

1. The use of the unit plan of organization which provides for a wide range of learning experiences on different aspects of interest and varying levels of difficulty
2. Instructional grouping of children in terms of their needs and levels of achievement
3. Differentiation in nature and scope of work required by pupils
4. Special classes for the gifted or slow-learning pupils
5. Adjustment in the time required for completing segments of work
6. Use of special coaching and remedial teachers
7. Use of the individualized work period
8. Individual guidance in cases of learning difficulty.

As a general rule, the more flexible types of classroom organization provide greater opportunity for learning experiences to be adapted properly to the needs of individual learners. In cases of marked mental retardation, special provisions frequently need to be made outside the regular classroom by teachers who are specially equipped to work with children of this type. However, even in such cases, schools should attempt to provide in some way for the optimum social development of such children.

In recent years, renewed emphasis has been placed on the apparent need for better means of providing stimulating programs for gifted children. There appears to be insufficient evidence to date to indicate conclusively the best way to meet the needs of such children. Varied types of programs are being carried on currently on a largely experimental basis. In the main, three general approaches have been made to this problem: adjustment of the program for gifted children through acceleration of their progress through school, special groups or classes for gifted children which provide curriculum adjustments not found in the typical classroom, and provision for enrichment experiences in the regular classroom. Undoubtedly, each of these plans has its educational virtues and weaknesses. In general, however, many educators feel that the enrichment approach provides the most promising possibility for dealing with the special needs of the gifted without sacrificing some of the benefits of the heterogeneous group and the self-contained classroom.

PROMOTIONAL POLICIES AND LEARNING

The manner in which a child progresses through the elementary school unquestionably has a bearing on both his attitude toward learning and his achievement. Along with other motivating factors, this consideration has prompted educators to engage in a continuous search for better means of regulating a child's progress through school in terms of his educational development. In the main, three general practices have prevailed with respect to promotion. They are represented by the grade-standard plan of promotion, promotion based on chronological age, and the continuous progress plan of promotion.

Many questions have been raised in recent years concerning the values of nonpromotion when based on grade standards or achievement alone. In fact, a number of experimental studies have indicated that nonpromotion:

1. Does not increase effort
2. Does not assure mastery of subject matter
3. Does not produce greater *homogeneity* of achievement within a grade group
4. Aggravates *emotional* instability and insecurity of learners
5. Is not consistent with the attribute of *continuity* in the development of children.

If schools are to achieve their goals of providing for the continuous development and for the reduction of the incidence of *nonpromotion* which prevails today in many quarters, definite steps must be taken to adjust instructional and administrative practices to accomplish these ends. Some of the important approaches are:

1. A well-graded and well-rounded curriculum in which adequate provision is made for the wide range of interests, needs, and abilities of children
2. Instructional methods which are appropriate to the various levels of maturity found in the group
3. More effective readiness programs which can serve as a basis for the introduction of new learning experiences
4. Provision for instructional materials in each classroom which are suited to the variabilities of interest and ability found in individual members of the group
5. Effective use of instructional grouping in terms of educational objectives
6. Reduction of the size of the classroom group to the point which will permit the teacher to give optimum attention to individual needs
7. More intelligent co-operation between teachers and parents to the point of integrating more fully all efforts to provide for continuity in the progress of the child.

TEACHER-PUPIL PLANNING

One of the conditions necessary for effective learning is that the learner clearly conceive the purpose of his educational effort. One way to insure some degree of clarity with respect to goals and activities in the classroom is to use

teacher-pupil planning in the development of learning experiences and in meeting problem situations. Anderson has cited the basic elements in the process of co-operative planning.³ They are:

1. A problem situation which has meaning and significance for the group in terms of long-range purposes set up and accepted by them
2. A real desire on the part of the group to do something about the problem
3. Shared planning to meet the problem; possible plans of action considered in terms of hoped-for outcomes
4. Preparation of a job-analysis of what needs to be done
5. Inventory of resources within the group for carrying out responsibilities; within all class groups there are potential artists, photographers, "research" people, interviewers, "experts" in certain skills, experiences and areas of knowledge, writers, reporters, chairmen
6. Inventory of sources of help and information outside the class group
7. Delegation and assumption of responsibilities according to methods set up by the group; voluntary co-operation on the basis of each person's best contribution
8. Execution of plans (will involve replanning, redefining of aims and goals, perhaps reassignment of some responsibilities, and many other adjustments)
9. Pooling findings: reporting, displaying
10. Use and practical applications including "follow-up"
11. Continuous evaluation through group discussions (entire group and committees), written individual evaluations, and teacher observations

DIAGNOSIS AND REMEDIATION

Schools cannot be expected to take the blame for problems of physical or mental deficiency in children. Most conditions of this type are rooted in sources outside the province of the school. The problem of educational retardation, however,

³ Loretta E. Klee, "How To Do Cooperative Planning," *Social Education*, XV (March, 1951), p. 122.

is quite another matter. As stated elsewhere, educational retardation is represented by the gap which exists between the achievement of an individual and his learning potential. This condition is brought about through the influence of one or more of many factors, some within the school and some outside.

The educationally retarded child is always a challenge to the inspired teacher since, with accurate diagnosis and favorable conditions, his learning can be improved materially. With a basic but general knowledge of child development and psychology, and with the help which might be expected from supervisory personnel, the regular classroom teacher frequently can work wonders in such cases. In more acute or unexplainable cases, however, it is often necessary to obtain the advisory services of special, remedial, or clinical personnel.

In diagnosing the causes and conditions which must be identified before corrective instruction can be planned for a child, certain steps are important:

1. *Determination of the ability level of the child*
2. *Determination of the achievement level of the child*
3. *Determination of the extent of retardation*
4. *Analysis of health factors in the child*
5. *Analysis of home history*
6. *Analysis of educational history*
7. *Analysis of work skills of the child.*

As a general rule, educational retardation is accompanied by two conditions which present a problem. One is the breakdown of a necessary skill such as reading, and the other is the negative emotional attitude which this lack of progress has produced in the child. In planning for remediation, procedures usually involve one or more of the following: (1) proper medical attention to physical needs; (2) correction of unfavorable elements in the educational environment; (3) adjustments in methods of instruction to meet specific needs; (4) adjustments in the curriculum; (5) utilization of

sources of psychological assistance; (6) provisions for materials of instruction adapted to the instructional and independent work levels of the learner; and (7) establishment of favorable bases for co-operation of parents and community agencies.

Provisions for individual children can be made only in terms of a careful study of their particular learning difficulties. It may be helpful, however, to make a few general observations concerning remedial instruction.

1. It is important to establish favorable rapport with the learner prior to formulating corrective instructional procedures.
2. The specific learning difficulty encountered should be considered in relation to the total development of the child.
3. The determination of the cause of the difficulty is prerequisite to remediation.
4. Effective programs of remediation usually require the elimination or alleviation of emotional obstacles to learning.
5. The corrective instruction should be integrated as fully as possible with regular developmental activities.
6. Remedial instruction produces best results when the learner is kept aware of his tentative progress.

APPROACHES TO IMPROVED LEARNING

Supervisors frequently assist teachers in providing better conditions for learning in the classroom. In fact, almost all supervisory activities are directly or indirectly related to this goal. Even so, perhaps it will be helpful to indicate a few more specific ways in which a supervisor can contribute to the establishment and maintenance of optimum conditions for learning.

1. Arrange for teachers to attend workshops on problems of individualized instruction, providing for slow-learners, or providing programs for gifted children.
2. Work closely with community health and child guidance agencies and arrange for their resources to be utilized by teachers in solving the problems of individual children.
3. Use one or more faculty meetings to discuss the basic elements of a rich educational environment.

4. Provide for the interchange of ideas among teachers with respect to the problems of particular children.
5. Encourage teachers in the use of cumulative records and anecdotal records as one basis for diagnosis of learning difficulties.
6. Provide facilities for effective diagnosis of learning difficulties in the school. In more serious individual cases, arrange for necessary referral to specialists in the school system, the school community, or a neighboring college or university.
7. Provide an up-to-date professional library on child psychology and development.
8. Work with the administration to keep classroom groups at a reasonable size so that teachers may have a better chance to individualize instruction.
9. Work closely with parents on all matters concerning the health of the child, as well as on other matters related to his general pattern of development.
10. Direct some curriculum development activities to the task of adjusting the curriculum to particular children or groups.
11. Work with the staff to develop practices in evaluation, promotion, and grouping which are consistent with known principles of learning, child development, and mental health.
12. Provide for in-service programs on such things as use of newer materials, human relations, and mental health.
13. Work with the staff and administration to provide a wide range of instructional materials for the use of teachers and pupils in the classroom.
14. *Help teachers locate and use rich community resources.*
15. *Practice the kind of human relations that is desired among teachers and pupils in the classroom.*

In addition to the possibilities listed above, there are numerous day-to-day opportunities for the supervisor to render valuable help to teachers in their efforts to provide for maximum learning in children. Assisting in the objective analysis of an educational difficulty or a behavior problem sometimes will give the teacher the needed clue for remediation. The supervisor quite often can render expert guidance in problems of learning and also serve as a resource person to assist the teacher in discovering ways to improve the situation.

SUGGESTIONS FOR GAINING UNDERSTANDING OF MEANS FOR IMPROVING LEARNING

1. Make a case study of an individual child and try to identify factors in the situation which may be deterrents to effective learning.
2. Study the literature dealing with the learning process. Note the generally accepted principles of learning and try to translate them into whatever meaning they have for teaching procedures in the classroom. Note instances in which practices which you have observed are inconsistent with known principles of learning or child development.
3. Analyze the various concepts of discipline held by teachers and parents you know. Try to reconcile each with the educational aims held for children in this country.
4. Arrange for a conference with a reading clinician or specialist. Find out as many as possible of the kinds of difficulties encountered by children with problems in reading. Get first-hand information about the diagnostic and remedial steps taken in such cases.
5. Visit the classroom of a successful teacher and find out what means are used to establish effective teacher-pupil relationships in the classroom.

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Chapter 12

Working Together to Expand Instructional Resources

Education is not wholly an abstract process. In fact, the nature and extent of learning at all levels is largely dependent upon the prior experience of learners with the actual people and things around them. The modern approach to elementary education involves the establishment of a challenging learning environment within which children are motivated and guided toward desirable educational goals.

There are many ways in which instructional materials enter into the learning activities of children in the modern elementary school. Materials contribute to the development of proficiency in the basic skills of reading, writing, and using mathematics effectively. Recreational skills are acquired through the use of appropriate manipulative materials. Children also learn how to work together more effectively as they co-operate in the use of learning materials to achieve their educational goals. Even the value of various types of materials and how to use them wisely can be learned functionally only through opportunities for their use, care, and conservation.

Proper organization of learning resources should provide assurance that the right material will be in the right place at the time it is needed. This total process involves attention to selection, evaluation, acquisition, distribution, and utilization of materials. Since the classroom is organized primarily

for the utilization of materials, provisions for care and storage of materials often must be made by the school as a whole. While accessibility is extremely important in the optimum utilization of instructional resources, it is well to recognize that the classroom is more of a working center than a storage center.

The effective use of instructional resources, of course, is closely related to the matter of improving teaching and learning which was given consideration in the preceding two chapters. In fact, it is only for the purpose of discussion and emphasis that the consideration of instructional materials can be separated from the total unified process of planning and organizing learning experiences for children. Nevertheless, in view of the importance of proper instructional materials in the teaching-learning situation, it is deemed advisable to treat the matter in some detail in this chapter. This chapter, therefore, will present a discussion of some basic principles related to the selection and use of instructional materials, factors which govern the use of instructional materials, all-school and classroom resources for learning and teaching, and supervisory activities which facilitate the wise selection and use of instructional resources.

BASIC PRINCIPLES RELATED TO INSTRUCTIONAL RESOURCES

The value of instructional materials must be determined by the extent of their usefulness in promoting the achievement of educational objectives. They are not ends in themselves but rather one of the means whereby expected attainments may be realized. In the main, the consideration of instructional materials involves two simple tasks: to determine what is to be accomplished and to determine what facilities are needed to accomplish it. Like many other facets of the educational program, then, specific decisions concerning the selection and use of instructional materials must be functionally based on local needs and conditions. This seems to preclude the possibility of presenting any

precise set of observations to govern the use of instructional resources. Nevertheless, there may be value in calling attention to a few basic principles which are related to this aspect of school activity.

Instructional resources are the media which connect educational purposes with educational outcomes. Educational aims are established in terms of visualized outcomes or attainments. Then, in order for these outcomes to be realized in terms of changed behavior, children must be afforded opportunities for learning experiences which will motivate and guide them toward the accomplishment of desired goals. Profitable experiences, however, do not occur in a vacuum. Children must have experiences with people and things. Therefore, it must be concluded that these resources which serve as aids to learning are vital and integral parts of the learning environment and the learning process. The effective fulfillment of educational goals and plans rests heavily on the availability of appropriate instructional materials.

Instructional resources are the chief means for concretizing learning experiences. It has already been established that children in the elementary school, especially those in the lower maturity levels, learn best through direct experience. In fact, the meanings necessary for the child to learn to read successfully can come only through his experience in the community and world about him. As children mature, of course, they become increasingly able to perform tasks involving abstract thinking but they never reach the point at which concrete materials cannot still be used to advantage in developing skills and understandings needed for proper development.

Instructional materials give substance to ideas when they are utilized in proper relation to generalized understandings. They also offer the functional means for the application of ideas to concrete situations in order to discover the bases for broad, emerging generalizations. They serve still another purpose in that they tend to stimulate interest and to motivate effort.

Instructional resources must be learner-oriented. Instruc-

tional resources are designed and selected primarily to serve the educational needs of learners rather than to simplify the task of the teacher. Supervisors and teachers frequently are confronted with the temptation to organize learning experiences and to select instructional materials on the basis of criteria which are more closely related to administrative expedience than to educational value. Effective teachers consider the particular needs and interests of children as important bases for acquiring and using specific types of instructional resources.

Instructional resources should take many forms. Modern education has developed in an era in which great advances have been made in providing numerous types of resources and facilities which are useful in the educational process. The day has passed when the single textbook is considered to be an adequate tool for learning in science, social studies, or reading. While textbooks are still considered to be valuable assets to learning and teaching, the alert teacher will not place sole dependence upon them to the exclusion of many other useful types of materials.

Instructional materials are found to be valuable in terms of the purposes served by them. Different types of resources are used as purposes of the learning activity vary.

Instructional resources should be varied in terms of sense appeal. Learning may occur through different kinds of activity. Much learning comes from some type of construction or manipulative experience. Some of it occurs as a result of verbal communication such as speaking and listening. Visualization is highly important in some aspects of learning; in others, auditory processes become the main avenue of gaining information and understanding. A wide variation in the types of materials available will be very helpful in providing a wide range of activities for children of differing abilities and interests.

Instructional materials should be selected with due consideration for the maturity levels of learners. Instructional resources have no value unless they can be used. When such resources are selected without giving proper attention

to the educational level of the children who will use them, their value is greatly diminished, if not destroyed completely. At least two dimensions should be considered in the acquisition of instructional materials: the dimension of difficulty and the dimension of interest. To be truly valuable aids to learning, instructional materials and facilities must be in accord with the achievement level of children and with the interests which usually prevail among children of the age involved.

Instructional materials should expedite learning in accord with known principles of learning. The selection of suitable instructional materials is not the only concern of teachers and supervisory personnel. It is equally important, if not more so, that proper use be made of the materials in the process of providing a provocative set of learning experiences for children. Careful consideration of the role of experience in education and of the integrative nature of the learning process will offer some theoretical guidelines to more effective use of instructional materials. For example, since children learn by doing, they must read to learn to read well. This calls for a wide variety of reading materials. However, if available reading materials are too difficult, then problems of motivation are encountered in the teaching-learning situation. This is merely to suggest that a consideration of the basic principles of learning should permeate any deliberations with respect to the selection or use of various types of learning resources.

Instructional materials should be safe for use by the children for whom they are acquired. Instructional materials must be free from any hazard which might result from their use in the classroom. While this may seem to be a trite observation, the importance of the safety of children cannot be overemphasized. Some types of science equipment, while suitable for controlled use by advanced students, may present an element of danger sufficient to raise serious questions about their use in the classrooms of the elementary school. As another example, many kinds of educational ex-

cursions need to be planned cautiously and supervised carefully if they are to be free from hazard.

Instructional materials should be co-operatively selected. While the persons who will make the greatest and most direct use of instructional materials probably should have the greatest voice in their selection, many people can make a useful contribution to the process of selection. In the main, teachers should be encouraged to select instructional materials which will be most valuable in their particular classrooms. However, such specialized personnel as the librarian, or the art supervisor, may be very helpful in providing technical information concerning materials under consideration. Administrators and supervisors also have a role to play in the selection and acquisition of teaching and learning resources. Aside from necessary budgetary considerations, administrative and supervisory personnel can be helpful in implementing and co-ordinating the steps necessary for obtaining desired materials for the school and for the various classrooms.

Instructional materials should be continuously evaluated. Some purposes seem to be more important than others; some methods seem to be more effective than others; and some materials seem to be more useful than others. This necessitates a continuous effort to determine just which materials are making worthwhile contributions to the teaching-learning process and which are not. Some of the bases for judging the value of such materials are discussed in a subsequent section of this chapter.

Instructional materials should possess a high technical quality. The format of printed material has as great an effect on the interests of children as the content. Such features as the type of illustrations, the use of humor, and the form of presentation all combine to produce an effect on children who use the materials. In the case of filmstrips and slides, photographic techniques and the nature of the captions or commentary are important elements in the effectiveness of the materials used.

Educational considerations should be foremost in the selection of materials and facilities for instruction. In the selection and use of instructional materials, initial consideration should be given to the determination of what is desirable from an educational standpoint. Then it can be determined how much of what is desirable is administratively possible. When this process is reversed, there is always the danger that questions of suitability and quality of materials will be subordinated to those of expediency and economy.

FACTORS GOVERNING USE OF RESOURCES

In the earlier periods of educational history in the United States, instructional materials were few and simple. A textbook from which to read and a slate on which to write were the two essential tools of learning. From that time on, gradual expansion of instructional resources has been a basic feature of a broadening educational program. Supplementary printed materials of various types, audio-visual equipment and materials, and other manipulative and display materials have been incorporated into the activities of children and teachers in the modern classroom.

Resources for the functional enrichment of learning experiences in the elementary school have been expanded greatly by the increasing scope and varied nature of materials now available to schools. However, desirable outcomes do not automatically accrue from the purchase or possession of many types of instructional materials. Their value is determined by the nature and extent of their use in stimulating worthwhile learning in children. Therefore, it is considered pertinent to suggest at least three basic factors which tend to govern the use of such materials.

ADEQUACY OF MATERIALS

The adequacy of instructional materials may be considered in terms of amount, scope, and quality. The kinds of facilities and the amount of materials needed will depend largely on such factors as school enrollment, class size, type

of organization, provisions for sharing common equipment, and the adequacy of the school budget. Learning experiences are restricted considerably when the supply of instructional materials is inadequate for the number of persons being served.

Because not all instructional materials serve the same purpose, the range of materials available should be in accordance with the varied purposes for which such materials may be used. Some idea of the broad range of materials desirable in the typical classroom can be obtained from scanning the following list:

1. Materials normally used by the group as a whole:
Exhibits, excursions, resource persons, pets, gardens, materials from the community, maps, charts, films, recordings, radio, television and reference books and supplementary materials
2. Materials normally used by individual learners:
Textbooks, workbooks, tests, practice materials, simple visual aids such as flash cards, manipulative materials, equipment for corrective and remedial work, and materials for independent reading.

The quality of instructional materials may be judged in terms of several criteria. As mentioned earlier, the technical quality of the materials is important both in terms of function and durability. Care also should be exercised to guarantee accuracy and validity of content in the case of basic and supplementary materials. This applies both to printed materials and to such materials as films, filmstrips, and recordings. In appraising the quality of instructional materials, it is usually helpful to determine the authorship of materials considered for use in terms of qualifications and reputation.

SUITABILITY OF MATERIALS

Instructional materials may be of highest quality and yet be entirely unsuitable for a particular purpose of a specific situation. Some of the questions which should be raised be-

fore investing time, money, and energy in the procurement of specific equipment or materials are:

1. Can the materials or equipment be used with success in the existing educational setting?
2. Are the materials related to the general and specific aims which the group hopes to achieve?
3. Are the materials suited to the maturity levels of the children in the group?
4. Are the materials related to the interests of children of this level?
5. Is there hazard or discomfort involved in the use of the materials by children of this level?
6. Is the use of these materials compatible with other learnings expected from activities carried on in the classroom?
7. Does the teacher possess necessary technical understanding and skill to make adequate use of the materials or equipment?

ACCESSIBILITY OF MATERIALS

One of the most compelling factors in utilization of materials is that of accessibility. Since teachers wish to use materials for a particular purpose and at a specific time, the potential value of many resources is never realized because they are not immediately available. Although considerable value may be derived from a situation in which children must locate, and sometimes devise materials and equipment for use in learning experiences, the fact remains that the richness of the educational environment can be improved by making materials more readily accessible.

Improvement in the accessibility of materials can be sought in many ways. The establishment of an instructional materials center in the school has many advantages if proper provisions are made for easy shifting of materials and equipment from place to place. Such a center in the elementary school often can be developed under the guidance and supervision of the librarian or audio-visual specialist, if these specialized personnel are a part of the school staff.

Central facilities for storage make it possible to get greater use from materials and equipment than would ordinarily be the case. It also provides for ease and accuracy in ac-

counting for materials and in the maintenance of a continuing inventory of facilities. In spite of the desirability of having certain types of major equipment and materials distributed from some central materials bureau, there is a continuing necessity to provide each classroom with the kinds of materials which are used on a regular and continuous basis. This means that provisions should be made in the school for (1) central storage of certain types of shared materials and equipment, (2) adequate classroom collections of materials and facilities, and (3) simple and feasible means for shifting materials from one place to another.

Some means should be devised whereby teachers can be made aware of community resources available to them. This requires a rather systematic survey from time to time of such resources as public libraries, public exhibits, art galleries, places of historic interest, private book collections, museums, public utilities and services, neighboring parks and zoos, and available resource persons. In some schools, lists of such resources are kept in a file to which teachers may refer as needs arise.

Several steps can be taken to increase the familiarity of teachers with sources of new materials of instruction. This may be done through such means as:

1. Providing a clearing house for publishers' catalogs and commercial advertising matter
2. Encouraging teachers to examine exhibits at professional meetings
3. Arranging for book fairs and other local exhibits of teaching materials
4. Providing teachers with book reviews and accounts of new materials in use in other schools
5. Devoting an occasional staff meeting to a sharing of information about new materials
6. Using consultants and resource persons from colleges and universities or from publishing companies
7. Providing teachers with guides to free and inexpensive materials which can be obtained
8. Encouraging teachers to share with other teachers materials produced in the classroom.

ALL-SCHOOL RESOURCES

In considering some of the more useful types of instructional materials and resources, it is deemed desirable to divide them into two groups: those resources which are typically organized on the basis of corporate or school-wide concerns and those resources whose use is normally under the guidance of the teacher in the classroom. Admittedly, these two types of resources are not mutually exclusive, but the division appears to provide a convenient pattern for discussion. It is the purpose of this section, therefore, to provide a brief discussion of a few of the types of resources which are more general in scope.

LIBRARY OR MATERIALS CENTER

Previous controversy concerning the relative merits of the central library and the classroom library has very largely disappeared among thoughtful educators and material specialists alike. Most now agree that both a central library and classroom collections are essential elements of effective library service in the modern elementary school. The classroom collection, of course, should be a changing collection based on instructional needs at any particular time.

The school library may serve both a service function and an instructional function. As a service agency for the school, the library provides a well-rounded collection of books, periodicals, and other instructional materials for the use of children attending the school. It also provides materials for the enrichment of each teacher's instructional activities in the classroom. In this case, the librarian becomes a valuable link between the resources of the library and the implementation of programs of instruction in the various classrooms. Through providing for temporary loan collections of materials related to particular units of work, the librarian makes a genuine contribution to teaching and learning.

While many schools still have other types of organization with respect to the housing and distribution of instructional

resources, there appears to be a definite trend toward centralizing all types of materials in an instructional materials center. This means that in many smaller schools, the library, even though not designated as a materials center, has been expanded to include responsibility for the storage, management, and distribution of audio-visual materials and other similar types of facilities. Some of the kinds of instructional resources which should be found in such a center are:

1. Basic reference books such as dictionaries, encyclopedias, and atlases
2. Supplementary books for use in connection with the instructional program of the school
3. Books for children to read independently for information or recreation
4. Suitable magazines and periodicals for the use of children
5. One or more regular newspapers
6. Bulletins and pamphlets of interest to children
7. A file of pictures for use in the classroom
8. Various types of maps and globes
9. Films and filmstrips
10. Recordings for informational and recreational listening
11. Exhibits of collections in science or social studies
12. Professional materials for use by teachers
13. Materials for use by parents in relation to child development, speech problems, stories for children, etc.
14. Display space for clippings and reviews.

AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

In addition to books and periodicals, school libraries should contain appropriate types of audio-visual materials. This type of material has many values when used wisely in the instructional program of the school. In cases in which direct experience is impossible in a learning situation, a great deal of reality can be injected into the situation through the use of films and filmstrips. Such materials provide novelty and promote interest. Though entertainment is seldom the objective in using audio-visual materials, a certain relief from the monotony of printed materials is often a valuable out-

come of the use of such materials. There is also some evidence to indicate that children acquire understandings faster and retain them longer through the effective use of audio-visual materials.

Most people think immediately of films, filmstrips, and projectors when audio-visual materials are being discussed. While these are important types of facilities, they represent only a small segment of the gamut of audio-visual resources. Some of the types most frequently found to be useful are: films (sound and silent), filmstrips, slides, opaque projections, still pictures, maps and globes, posters and charts, objects and models, specimens, bulletin boards and felt boards, records, radio, tape recordings, and television programs.

Materials should be selected carefully in terms of the use to which they are to be put. Mehl, Mills, and Douglass¹ list some factors which should be considered in selecting visual resources for teaching:

1. The degree to which the type of material is adapted to the objectives and problems of the course. For example, if the desired outcome is the understanding of a process involving motion, the motion picture is particularly suitable; in the physical sciences, demonstrations of the action of objects or materials are valuable; in nature study, field trips for the purpose of observing and studying animals and plants in their natural habitat are important; maps and globes assist in the formation of accurate concepts of the relationships of places.
2. The relative effectiveness of the available types of visual materials. A considerable amount of educational research has been devoted to the relative values of different types of visual materials. The evidence is clear that different types of aids serve different purposes. In many instances the decision in regard to what aid to use is not in terms of the relative superiority of one type of material over another, but rather of what combination of materials is the most desirable.
3. Proper balance and variety of materials. Not all types of

¹ Marie A. Mehl, Hubert H. Mills, and Harl R. Douglass, *Teaching in Elementary School* (2d ed.; New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1958), p. 223.

visual materials are equally effective in different types of classroom activities. For example, stereograph views are well adapted for individual pupil study, whereas projected pictures are appropriate for group activity. The interests of an individual pupil may be more adequately served by a variety of materials than by a single one. A model may arouse the interest of one pupil, while the dramatic quality of a film may make a strong appeal to another. The selection of visual materials should be made on an objective basis, thereby avoiding overemphasis on those types which may have a particular fascination for the teacher or for a few members of the class.

4. The extent to which the type of materials is adaptable to the pupil's mental abilities. Visual teaching materials appropriate for one group of pupils may appear to be "kid stuff" to another group.
5. Availability and cost of materials and time required for presentation in the classroom.
6. If the visual material has been used previously by the teacher, the evaluation she and her pupils have made of it. In an increasing number of schools, the expert opinions of the director if visual education is available to teachers.

Among the more recent innovations in educational practice in this country is the use of radio and television as integral elements in the instructional program of the school. Although the impact of radio and television on children has been largely due to their use outside of school, both media appear to possess genuine possibilities for enhancing and supplementing the regular instructional program of the school. Research has been limited with respect to the types of outcomes which may be expected from radio and television, but some studies are emerging which indicate their potential possibilities as devices for group education.

Two basic uses are being made of radio and television in elementary education. In a relatively small number of school systems, mostly in metropolitan areas, classrooms are equipped with radio and television receivers which are used in connection with educational broadcasts and telecasts which usually originate within the school system or school community. On a much more universal basis, teachers are

making use of experiences children have with television at home. In sharing periods, and in connection with the development of units in science or social studies, children are encouraged to report information which they have gained from the use of the radio or television receiver at home.

Undoubtedly, since it involves both visual and auditory approaches to learning, television offers the promise of developing into a powerful educational force. There seems to be little basis for the expressed fears of some that television will be used for mass teaching and thus replace the teacher in the classroom. In view of the significance of the personal element in teaching, particularly at the elementary-school levels, such a development seems highly improbable at the moment. There is little doubt, though, that enterprising teachers and school systems will find further ways in which the medium of television can be used to fortify and enrich teaching methodology.

SPECIALIZED EQUIPMENT

Certain types of equipment and facilities may not be classified strictly as instructional materials but yet they exert a considerable influence on the effectiveness of teaching and learning with respect to some individuals and groups. Such equipment as facilities for use in connection with health services, with the administration of screening tests for vision and hearing, or for providing for the needs of exceptional children may all be considered as instructional resources since they contribute to the creation of better learning possibilities for children. A good example of this type of instructional resource are the sight-saving materials now available for the use of children with defects in vision.

COMMUNITY RESOURCES

An effective instructional program cannot be confined within the four walls of the classroom nor, for that matter, within the boundaries of the school itself. The modern elementary school is becoming increasingly an interacting

agency with the community within which it is established and exists. In general, there are four main ways in which the school utilizes community resources for instructional purposes. They are: (1) community study, (2) community surveys, (3) use of resource persons, and (4) educational excursions.

Community Study. Many values can be derived from activities which help to relate the school to the surrounding community. For example, community study:

1. Encourages co-operation between school and community
2. Tends to functionalize instruction for children by relating it to practical surroundings
3. Offers a practical means for enriching and extending the curriculum of the school
4. May sharpen the children's appreciation of community agencies and services
5. Tends to foster a feeling of civic pride in the children
6. May improve the ability of children to make critical observations and analyses
7. Provides opportunities for children to engage in realistic group work of a socially useful nature
8. May lead to improvement of the community itself
9. May reveal valuable learning resources not otherwise discovered.

Community Surveys. Community surveys can provide splendid opportunities for children to become acquainted with the elements which together form the community. The nature and comprehensiveness of such surveys, of course, is determined largely by the level of maturity of the children involved. As a rule, it is better for younger children to make general surveys rather than to attempt to probe the community intensively along any particular lines of inquiry.

Some of the community factors about which information can be obtained include: (1) types of people who constitute the community; (2) population trends; (3) types of homes; (4) types of businesses; (5) types of vocations which are predominant; (6) community organizations; (7) religious groups and churches; (8) health and hospital facilities; (9)

recreational facilities; (10) types of public services and utilities; (11) community history; and (12) type of government.

Resource Persons. Using resource persons is another effective way of incorporating community resources into the school program. Almost every community boasts the presence of individuals who have unusually valuable experiences or information that can be shared to advantage. Such individuals may be brought to the school to speak to classroom groups, or may be interviewed by interested pupils who, in turn, share the information with their classmates. Some of the types of resource persons who may be able to make substantial contributions to the school are:

1. Individuals who have an unusual knowledge of the history of the community, region, or state
2. Individuals who are engaged in unusual, interesting occupations
3. Individuals who have firsthand knowledge of expeditions or scientific discoveries
4. Individuals who are specialists in particular fields of science or scientific work
5. City or government officials who can explain firsthand the processes of local government
6. Artists and entertainers who can give educational presentations
7. Individuals who have traveled widely in other lands throughout the world
8. Parents who can assist in special projects and activities in the school.

If resource persons are to be invited to come to the school, systematic plans should be made so that the greatest benefits may be derived from the visit. A discussion of the purposes of the visit with children, along with tentative plans for the role of children in receiving the visitor, can help to make the contribution of the resource person pleasant and worthwhile. The children should be encouraged to practice effective and courteous behavior in the audience situation and in participating in the following discussion. After the visit of the re-

source person, steps should be taken to summarize, analyze, and evaluate the kinds of information and understandings which result from the visit.

In the *Thirty-fifth Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals*,² there appears a list of specific suggestions for gaining greatest benefits from the visits of resource persons. They are:

1. Make a list of the specific kinds of help which children need.
2. Decide whether or not a resource person is the best way to secure the help that is needed.
3. Be sure to choose the most appropriate time for the visitor because "timing" is very important.
4. Choose the resource persons who can offer the richest contribution to the children of your age group.
5. Make plans with the resource person in advance. Give him information about the age and interests of the class; call attention to the need for the resource person to use appropriate vocabulary.
6. Direct the children in making plans for the visitor; introductions, behavior standards.
7. Make plans for recording the information: notes, tape recording.
8. Make a list of the questions which the children and the teacher will ask at appropriate times during the visit.
9. Plan ways to use the information which will be secured. Decide on use, such as oral and written expression through reporting, dramatization, stories, pictures, murals, construction work.
10. Make plans for evaluating the experience and the use made of the information.
11. Make plans for showing appreciation to the visitor for the service he has rendered through a letter of appreciation, or gift, or refreshments.

Educational Excursions. Another profitable way to make use of community resources is through the planning and use of educational excursions into the community. This, of

² Alma M. Freeland, "Resources Are Where You Find Them," in *Instructional Materials for Elementary Schools* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association of the United States, 1956), p. 114.

course, is one aspect of community study which was discussed briefly earlier in the chapter. Most communities are replete with possibilities for educational field experiences. Well-planned visits to such places as a steel mill, a radio station, a dairy farm, a stone quarry, or a printing plant can yield outstanding educational outcomes.

If educational excursions are to be as profitable as possible, certain steps should be taken to insure their success. Prior to the trip, children should be prepared by discussing with them the purposes and possibilities of the trip. Also, it is necessary to arrange for the visit at a time most convenient for the people involved. Careful arrangements for transportation should be made, along with provisions for appropriate persons to serve as guides or to assist in supervising the trip. It is also desirable to have the approval of the principal of the school for the excursion and to have the written permission of parents for their children to participate in the excursion.

CLASSROOM RESOURCES

In addition to the general types of instructional resources discussed in the preceding section of this chapter, there are other kinds of instructional facilities and materials which the teacher may profitably employ in the classroom. Some of these resources are: textbooks, workbooks, supplementary books, curriculum materials, and concrete teaching materials. In the modern elementary school, it is usually assumed that teachers will participate in the selection, use, adaptation, and evaluation of the various types of instructional materials used in the classroom. This requires a general knowledge, at least, of such materials.

TEXTBOOKS

Someone has said that textbooks are "neither millstones nor magic carpets." This expression dramatizes in simple fashion the fact that textbooks are basic and useful instruments of instruction but they do not, by any means, preclude

the necessity for other types of material in the classroom. In fact, overdependence on textbooks appears to restrict learning experiences both as to scope and interest. In addition, the use of a single textbook in a curriculum area sets up a condition in which children have the benefit of only one author's point of view. Even so, the textbook has many values in the classroom if the teacher, through co-operative planning with pupils, makes full use of the various types of supplementary materials available to him. Suggestions pertinent to the effective use of textbooks follow:³

1. Select the best available textbook.
2. Supplement its use by discussions, collateral readings, and pupil activities of a wide variety.
3. Avoid mere recitation of textual materials. In discussion time call on pupils for main ideas, applications to life, and general principles.
4. Teach pupils how to read the textbook critically and understandingly.
5. Teach pupils how to use the various aids included in the textbook, such as the table of contents, the index, marginal and other headings, study questions, visual material.
6. Make assignments which call for recitation, evaluation, criticism, interpretation, application, and supplementation.
7. In some classes, particularly in history, follow an introductory survey or rapid reading of the text with a more thorough, slower study of the text and collateral material.
8. Adapt the textbook and other materials to the individual and to the various levels of ability of the class.

One of the problems facing the administrative, supervisory, and teaching staff is that of selection of textbooks. Although the elementary principal and supervisor cannot be assumed to be free of responsibility for the selection of instructional materials, it is important for teachers to have an opportunity to express themselves with respect to the kinds of materials they wish to use in their classrooms. The selection of textbooks, then, usually becomes a co-operative activity in which a committee is normally given the responsi-

³ Mehl, Mills, and Douglass, *op. cit.*, p. 210.

bility for co-ordinating the processes through which books are comparatively evaluated in terms of the purposes of the school.

The American Textbook Publishers Institute made some observations concerning the processes through which the selection of textbooks can be most effectively achieved.⁴ Their statement follows.

School authorities and publishers have a common purpose in studying the problem of textbook selection: to determine those procedures which best assure a fair and objective evaluation of every textbook under consideration. This means an understanding not only of what each book contributes to good teaching, but also of how well it meets the school's objectives for the grade and subject. Obviously such an understanding benefits both children and school; it also works for better textbooks by making the publisher an active partner in the teaching profession. . . .

The details of any desirable procedure for textbook adoptions must vary with the subject, the grade level, and the peculiarities of each school system. Large cities will follow different procedures from towns and villages. Elementary school arithmetic poses problems quite different from high school science, adoptions from a state-approved multiple list require procedures different from those of independent school systems. Yet, underlying these many variations, there are several basic principles for the sound and successful selection of textbooks.

First and foremost, the selection should be largely influenced by classroom teachers. After all, they are the ones who meet the children each day and should be best able to judge the kinds of materials that are most effective. Guidance and counsel by supervisory authority is frequently necessary to make certain that selections meet the objectives of the contemplated program; but teachers will be responsible for the use of new materials in the classroom and they should have a strong voice in the decision. A committee on elementary textbooks might well consist of four to six teachers, along with an administrative or supervisory official. On the other hand, textbook selection for a small independent high school might be informally assigned to the two or three who teach the subject. But whether the committee is large or small, formal or informal, elementary or high school, classroom teachers should have the primary responsibility for making textbook decisions.

No committee is stronger than its members. The wise superintendent will, therefore, evaluate candidates not only for their experi-

⁴ *Desirable Procedures for Selecting Textbooks* (New York: American Textbook Publishers Institute), pp. 1-2.

a workbook is used wisely, however, as a supplementary device, it can serve some teaching purposes in a profitable manner. As a rule, workbooks may be valuable if they are prepared and used in such a manner that they:

1. Provide for guided experience in self-direction and independent study
2. Provide for a wider range of learning activities
3. Are closely related to other aspects of classroom activity
4. Furnish adequate and useful types of review materials
5. Are sufficiently flexible to provide for individual differences among children
6. Provide a suitable means for children to get practice in needed skills
7. Save time of the teacher and learners without sacrificing other desirable outcomes.

SUPPLEMENTARY BOOKS

Aside from workbooks, there are other types of supplementary books needed for the modern elementary-school program. Most schools have progressed beyond the use of a single textbook in any given curriculum area so that it has become necessary to provide books to supplement the use of basic textbooks. In the main, these are of two types: (1) multiple copies of books used in the classroom in connection with directed learning experiences, such as books to be used in reading or social studies; and (2) books which will be used mostly by individual children in the school, both as reference and background material and for recreational reading. Some of the advantages of supplementary materials are that they provide an opportunity to:

1. Present points of view other than those presented in the textbook
2. Extend the scope of content contained in basic materials
3. Bring variety into the array of instructional materials used in the school
4. Cover matters of importance not included in the textbook
5. Adapt materials to the reading levels of individuals or groups within the classroom.

CURRICULUM MATERIALS

Not all useful instructional materials are produced commercially. In fact, the resourceful teacher will find that many of his most useful materials are those which have been produced as a part of curriculum study programs in the school. In the main, the most commonly used materials of this type are curriculum guides and courses of study, and *resource units*.

In using curriculum materials, one should remind himself constantly of the difference between a course of study and a curriculum. Actually, the curriculum consists of learning experiences as they occur; the course of study is an outline of proposed learning experiences as they are visualized. As observed in an earlier chapter, the emphasis in curriculum development in recent years has shifted from course of study production to a greater stress on providing flexible guides and resource materials to assist teachers in planning, organizing and adapting learning experiences for local use.

Curriculum Guide. The modern type of curriculum guide is not merely an outline of content to be covered. It is a more flexible kind of guide to the curriculum rather than a formalized plan which prescribes what each teacher is to teach. It merely indicates some of the co-operative agreements arrived at with respect to the scope and sequence of the curriculum. Through it is provided a broad framework within which each teacher is able to exercise a great deal of initiative and professional ingenuity. Most guides of this kind now include types of materials not found in the more traditional course of study. Some of the matters to which modern guides often give attention are:

1. Statements of the general philosophy of the school and its relation to the curriculum and teaching
2. Statements of goals or objectives. These statements often include more general goals, as well as those related to the specific area in which the guide is prepared
3. Suggestions on teacher-pupil planning on a co-operative basis

4. Statements concerning the characteristics of children at various levels of development as well as suggestions for studying children
5. The general framework of the curriculum expressed in terms of scope and suggested sequence of learning experiences
6. Suggested activities and learning experiences from which teachers and children can choose in terms of particular aims and conditions
7. Suggested resources upon which children and teacher may draw in the pursuit and development of learning experiences
8. Suggestions for initiating and organizing units of work
9. Suggested means for the evaluation of the outcomes of learning experiences.

Resource Unit. Another type of helpful curriculum aid is the resource unit. More and more, expensive courses of study and curriculum guides are being replaced by resource units. The resource unit may be developed around any type of center of interest. It probably is used most commonly to develop some phase of science or social-studies objective. In general, the resource unit contains the objectives of the unit, a general outline of the suggested content, a listing of various resource materials which can be tapped for information, various types of activities through which the unit may be developed, and some bases for the evaluation of resulting outcomes.

Although resource units are sometimes used in a rather restricted manner by directive teachers, this type of organization of learning experiences offers considerable opportunity for flexibility in planning and developing learning experiences suited to the needs and maturity of children. An increasing number of teachers plan with children the alternatives of what materials may be used and what activities included in the work of the group. In using resource units, as in the use of all types of instructional materials, it is necessary to consider the purposes, needs, and abilities of the members of the group.

Teacher's Manual. There is another type of publication which has strong curricular implications. It is the *teacher's*

manual which is usually furnished in conjunction with the purchase and use of textbooks in specific curriculum areas. As a rule, these manuals are prepared by competent professional persons and can be very useful to the teacher in planning and organizing effective learning experiences. Caution should be exercised, however, to prevent overdependence on such materials by teachers to the point that individual initiative and creativity are not allowed to operate. With beginning teachers, though, the teacher's manual can be very useful if employed in a judicious manner.

OTHER TEACHING MATERIALS

As school programs have increasingly reflected the awareness of the role of experience in education, schools have found it correspondingly necessary to obtain many types of teaching materials which permit and encourage direct manipulative experiences by children. This has taken many forms. In the superior modern school will be found many kinds of media for experiences in arts, crafts, and simple construction. Experiences ranging from finger painting in the lowest grades to simple industrial arts in the upper grades all demand appropriate materials for effective teaching. In the area of mathematics, many types of devices are now used in the early levels to give children concrete, actual experiences with number relationships. As indicated in the discussion of audio-visual aids in an earlier part of this chapter, models, specimens, and other concrete objects are quite valuable to the teacher who is searching for means to enliven and enrich instruction. The resourceful supervisor can aid a teacher greatly in his attempts to provide highly motivating learning experiences for children.

APPROACHES TO IMPROVING MATERIALS

The supervisor should never lose sight of the fact that his major responsibility is to help teachers teach better so that children may learn better. One of the primary means by which a supervisor can meet this professional obligation is to

consider himself a resource person in the process of helping teachers identify, locate, procure, and use the variety of instructional materials necessary for the rich development of learning experiences in the classroom. There will be many opportunities for this type of service from day to day. Some of the more specific ways a supervisor may be helpful in this respect are:

1. Encourage teachers who work with children on the development of their own materials for use in the classroom
2. Provide for the sharing of ideas of individual teachers with other teachers or with the entire group
3. Arrange for exhibits of books and other materials which would be useful to teachers
4. Provide leadership in the establishment of an instructional materials center for the use of teachers and children
5. Provide leadership in the development of helpful curriculum materials
6. Provide for actual demonstrations of the use of newer types of materials
7. Encourage teachers to make surveys of the community on a co-operative basis to determine undiscovered community resources
8. Make arrangements for intervisitation by teachers in order that they may observe effective use of instructional materials by other teachers
9. Encourage the co-operative selection of textbooks and other materials for all-school use
10. Provide the mechanical means for the sharing of resource units developed by teachers and children of the various classrooms
11. Encourage the co-operative planning of in-service workshops on instructional materials.

SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVING UNDERSTANDING OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

1. Read the Thirty-fifth Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals on *Instructional Materials for Elementary Schools*.
2. Talk with an elementary supervisor to determine how he at-

- tempts to assist teachers with problems related to the location and use of stimulating instructional materials.
3. Find out how most schools in your state select textbooks. Evaluate the process in terms of your concept of democratic leadership.
 4. Visit a curriculum laboratory in a neighboring college or school. Try to determine its chief functions and benefits.
 5. Examine several curriculum guides produced within the last few years. Compare them with the traditional type course of study.
 6. If possible, participate in a community survey.
 7. Attend available workshops in the field of instructional materials.
 8. Visit a school system in which educational television is being used.

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Chapter 13

Working Together to Improve Staff Effectiveness

Our democratic society is composed of individuals who are also members of groups. Within that society, education is an established process for improving the functioning of both individuals and groups. When the elements of a society are brought together by common goals and co-operative endeavors, it is likely to function with greater success in terms of benefits for all. Similarly, many of the outcomes of education are affected by the degree to which its various components are merged into a well-co-ordinated effort.

Teachers operate in two ways. They behave as individuals in terms of their own goals, concepts, and experiences; they also perform as members of a team with corporate purposes. As an individual, the teacher must make decisions and carry them into action. In fact, it has been said that the essence of good teaching is the ability to make the right decision at the right time. The quality of these decisions is judged primarily on how well they time learning for the individual child and permit him to grow at an optimum rate. The most effective learning occurs under optimum learning conditions. The teacher is the person with the greatest control over the factors that affect the quality of learning by children. Many of these factors can be modified if the teacher has the wisdom to relate them properly to the learning process. The degree of competence necessary to produce best results is a resultant of professional preparation, in-service

growth, and insightful experimentation. One of the tasks of modern supervision is that of realizing the full potentialities of teachers as individuals.

Values and goals other than those of the teacher affect the teaching-learning situation. On a broad basis, the general purposes of schools in American democracy form a framework within which the teacher operates. In a similar, but less remote manner, the attitudes and mores of the immediate school community help shape the nature of the teacher's behavior in the classroom. Even more directly, though, the teacher must always be conscious of the necessity of performing as a member of the school staff. Just as each individual teacher has formulated goals for himself and learners, there are also common goals and concerns of the school as a whole which must be considered if optimum outcomes are to be realized from the program of the school. As teachers are able to perform in such a manner as to help in the realization of group goals, group morale and mutual concern tend to increase. Actually, the relationship of the individual teacher to the group of which he is a member is an interactive one. The individual teacher influences the aims and achievements of the total staff, and the nature and attitudes of the group affect the success of the individual teacher.

The preceding paragraphs suggest that staff effectiveness is demonstrated by the competence of the individual teachers as they work daily to promote learning, and by the corporate success of the staff as a whole in establishing a philosophy and conditions which facilitate learning and teaching to a maximum degree. By the same token, if the effectiveness of a staff is to be improved, there are two possible types of supervisory activity involved: those activities that improve the professional efficiency of the individual teacher and those activities that facilitate effective group process. This means that the supervisor will attempt to furnish the type of leadership which has a salutary effect on individual effort and which seeks to release the potential combined power of the group as a whole.

Several factors related to the improvement of the technical competence of teachers were discussed in Chapter 10. It is the purpose of this chapter to examine some of the considerations which underlie the upgrading of over-all effectiveness of the staff, both as a group and as individuals. Specifically, the discussion is concerned with some basic principles related to improvement of staff effectiveness, characteristics of effective staff organization, considerations in improving the effectiveness of the individual staff member, and approaches to improved group effectiveness.

BASIC PRINCIPLES RELATED TO STAFF EFFECTIVENESS

Staff effectiveness is a relative matter. Perfection is a state which never will be reached either by individuals or by the staff as a whole. As individuals move upward on the scale of proficiency, however, the growth which they experience contributes to their own development and to the increasing operational power of the group. This improvement does not come from any sole source or through any single means. In fact, it is impossible to delineate any set of techniques or activities which will result in the automatic improvement of the staff. It is possible to suggest a few basic principles which may serve as a framework for considering feasible approaches to staff improvement.

The effectiveness of a staff is dependent on the quality of the staff. An elementary school which provides the best possible learning experiences for the children it serves must be staffed with persons who are interested in the job they are doing and are capable of doing it. In the selection of teachers for such a school, it is important to consider both the status and potential of the person. The prospective teacher not only should be able to experience initial success but also should clearly possess the enthusiasm and the capacity for further professional growth. It is impossible for an administrator or supervisor, however competent as a professional leader, to bring about any marked improvement in

the performance of a staff member if that individual does not possess the inclination and capacity for growth beyond his initial qualifications.

In the selection process, some effort should be made to appraise the prospective teacher in terms of his personal and social attributes, his background of experience, his intellectual abilities, his educational philosophy, his attitudes toward people and his plans for his professional future. Each of these components of his total makeup will affect his immediate success in the classroom and his ultimate chance for improvement. The effectiveness of the staff as a whole is largely determined by the success of the school system in attracting individual teachers with the ability to work as members of a co-operating team.

The effectiveness of the staff is related to the clarity with which responsibilities are defined. Efficiency in performing a given task is dependent upon the concept of the task held by the worker and on the purposeful nature of his activity. A vague and nebulous notion of a task to be performed limits both the enthusiasm and proficiency of a worker. In the case of a teacher in the elementary school, considerable motivation and a sense of confidence and direction are derived from the possession of a clear concept of the goals to be achieved and of the limits of the framework within which the teacher must work to accomplish them. Having one's primary responsibilities defined so that he has a clear picture of his own obligations in relation to the responsibilities of others can contribute a great deal to the effectiveness of one's own efforts and to the smoother functioning of the staff as a whole.

The effectiveness of the staff is related to the professional stimulation of the environment. Much has been said about the influence of the surrounding environment on the quality and extent of learning experienced by children in the elementary school. The environment is also an important factor in the success of a teacher. While the physical conditions found in a school undoubtedly exert some influence on the effectiveness of the teacher, even more important is the in-

tellectual and emotional climate in which the teacher performs his duties. Opportunities for the interchange and testing of creative ideas and the attitudes of administrators and supervisors toward innovation may be important factors in motivating a teacher toward new horizons in teaching. The establishment and maintenance of an emotional climate of mutual respect and individual security is a prime prerequisite to the efficient functioning of most processes which contribute to the growth of a staff.

The effectiveness of the staff is related to the adequacy of the tools needed for improvement. A teacher does not teach alone. Neither does he teach in a vacuum. He cannot create a stimulating environment for teaching and learning out of nothing. Learning takes place by activating the learner toward the realization of his purposes through the utilization of some medium of experience. Such media are vital to effective teaching activity.

Aside from the instructional resources needed to provide worthwhile learning experiences for children, the teacher needs to be encouraged to sharpen his own facilities which are used in teaching. For example, the speech patterns and communicative skills of the teacher can be great assets to teaching or, if lacking, tremendous obstacles to improvement. These are conditions which teachers, under skillful supervision, can alleviate considerably.

The effectiveness of members of the staff is related to the administrative and supervisory support given their efforts. Many factors other than the individual skill of a teacher contribute to his success. His teaching activity always occurs within the context of the total school program. How well he can perform his responsibilities in the classroom is partially determined at least, by administrative and supervisory practices which tend to lend support to his efforts. This support is evident in the degree to which the teacher's need for instructional materials is provided as well as in the kind of moral support extended to him as he attempts to meet the day-to-day obligations of teaching. The feeling of support which comes from genuinely positive leadership tends to

build confidence in a staff member and, in turn, this feeling of confidence affects his relationship with others in a wholesome manner. All in all, there is nothing more vital to a teacher's morale than the feeling that he is a valued member of the educational team.

The effectiveness of the staff is related to the satisfactions resulting from staff efforts. Motivation is a powerful factor in any type of human activity. It is especially important as the teacher experiences the alternate satisfactions and discouragements that accompany the daily routines of life in the classroom. The sense of accomplishment and pride possessed by the teacher affects his current efforts and is a great stimulus to further effort. These feelings of satisfaction, of course, spring partially from the attitudes of others toward the work of the teacher. It is extremely important, therefore, for the teacher to sense the approbation of the supervisor and administrator and to have the respect of his colleagues as he meets his responsibilities. Recognition for work well done seems to be one of the greatest sources of satisfaction to a worker. It is likely that it will always remain so.

The effectiveness of the staff is dependent on the quality of the interrelationships of its members. Each individual member of a staff has his own particular purposes and drives. How well he is able to accomplish his aims and satisfy his professional drives, however, depends somewhat on the interrelationships of the staff of which he is a part. Individual members of a staff affect each other. No teacher can do his best work in an atmosphere charged with conflict and impending criticism. Under such conditions, he is likely to become unduly cautious, to settle into some comfortable rut of mediocrity, and to attempt to build up within himself an immunity to the suggestions or ideas of others. On the other hand, pleasant working relations and an air of co-operation among members of a group will lend strength to the efforts of each.

Relations between teachers and supervisor, and between general supervisors and special supervisors and consultants,

also affect the tone of the entire professional environment. A sense of conflict among persons who make up the staff is always a deterrent to productivity.

The effectiveness of the staff is related to the leadership of the supervisor. No supervisor, however skilled he may be in the processes of educational leadership, can insure the success of the members of the staff solely through his own efforts. Staff effectiveness is the product of many combined conditions and forces. The concept of leadership held by the supervisor, however, and the manner in which he seeks to implement that concept, do much to determine the overall effectiveness of the persons with whom he works. An authoritarian notion of leadership tends to restrain the creative efforts of teachers and to keep them in the role of followers. Conversely, however, the careful rotation of opportunities for leadership among members of the staff will provide outlets for creative efforts and will bring status and satisfactions essential to emotional health and adjustment.

The effectiveness of the staff is related to the nature of staff organization. Two conditions are required for optimum productivity of teachers. The first is a sufficient degree of direction to lend stability and cohesion to the group effort. The second is the guarantee of sufficient flexibility to permit creativity and initiative to operate freely. The effective conciliation of these two considerations into a working organizational pattern is the very essence of skilled leadership. Such a concept of leadership will not permit the status leader to abdicate from his responsibilities nor will it allow him to place restrictions upon the potential achievements and growth of school personnel, either as individuals or as a collective unit. The type of staff organization which encourages co-operative policy development, the free interchange of ideas through opportunities for group work, and group evaluation of the total school program, is conducive to the unity of purpose and effort essential to an optimum educational situation.

The effectiveness of the staff can be improved. The basic justification for supervisory services in the schools lies in the

assumption that the quality of teaching and learning is modifiable and can thus be improved. As long as successful teaching and learning depend upon the human qualities and behavior present in any given situation, they will be subject to the effects of variable conditions and forces governing the situation. To improve the situation, then, three things seem to be necessary: (1) the removal of conditions which interfere with effectiveness, (2) the encouragement of conditions which promote effectiveness of individuals, and (3) provision of an organization which efficiently pools the strengths of the individuals in the over-all effort.

ORGANIZATION FOR STAFF EFFECTIVENESS

Organization is a tool for efficient operation and the nature of the organization should be related to the task to be done. Through effective organization, it is possible to provide machinery whereby improvement activities of the local school may be facilitated and brought into consistent relationship with the larger school community. Each school, of course, should work toward the development of the type of staff organization which will best support its objectives and facilitate its processes. There is always the lurking danger, of course, that an organizational plan will become so highly structured and so elaborate that it actually interferes with the kinds of professional activities which promote growth. However, as long as organization is considered a means rather than an end, it can serve a genuine purpose in providing co-ordination and cohesion for the professional staff in the performance of their duties and in their efforts to improve themselves.

The philosophy governing the type of organization found in the school is indicative of the quality of the climate for staff improvement. This philosophy will be reflected in several ways. Some of them are personnel policies of the school, characteristics of the staff organization, and the relation of the staff to in-service programs.

PERSONNEL POLICIES OF THE SCHOOL

If the objectives of the modern elementary school are to be achieved and the stage set for continuous improvement, a high quality of personnel is needed. The level of quality of the staff employed in the school tends to set the limits of improvement which may reasonably be expected. But more than the original selection of teachers is involved in positive personnel practices. In fact, some of the practices which affect teachers throughout their tenure strongly influence the likelihood of staff improvement in many instances. In a bulletin of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, there appeared a discussion of some of the important considerations in school personnel practices.¹ The following represents an adaptation of that statement:

Methods for selection of teachers should be improved for those who enter teacher-preparation institutions as well as for those who are chosen to teach in public schools.

Teachers now in service may well give considerable attention to counseling promising young people attending high schools who look toward teaching as a career. Young people will become increasingly interested in teaching as a desirable profession as they observe in their teachers the type of personality which they admire. A fair share of our capable young people should find themselves attracted toward teaching as a career. Schools and colleges must work together on this problem not only locally but on a state-wide basis. The great national concern over the supply of teachers can best be relieved by devoted work on state and local levels.

A cooperative approach is needed for improving on-campus education of teachers.

Encouraging high quality young people to attend teacher-preparation institutions is only an initial step in improving the teaching profession. A top-grade program of educational experiences is necessary to equip these young people adequately for teaching in a modern school.

The present trend of school-college cooperation in research

¹ *Better Than Rating* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association of the United States, 1950), pp. 75-80.

in education and in teacher education is most encouraging. With other school people and college faculty members discussing ways and means of improving on-campus education of teachers, a more functional program of teacher preparation is likely to develop in the near future than has been available in the past. The education of teachers must be recognized as a very complex process. The work which can be accomplished during four years of college preparation is merely the beginning of a teacher's education.

Teachers should be helped to find appropriate and satisfying placement within a school system.

The first placement of a teacher on the job may be by no means the best and it should not necessarily be the final placement. Teachers who cannot operate well in one environment may become effective and successful professional people if moved to another building. Placement should be flexible and should be used to help the individual toward a more satisfying professional experience. Teachers, both as individuals and as groups, should work continuously and cooperatively with administrators toward the best possible placement of teachers on the job.

Teachers should be given special help during their probationary years.

Many school systems providing tenure for teachers have a probationary period of three years. This provides an opportunity for determining those teachers who fit into the community and who operate well in the program of education which is being evolved. This period also provides the new teacher an opportunity to determine whether he wishes to remain in a given school system for a period of years.

During this probationary period the individual usually receives guidance and help from other teachers, supervisors and administrators. During this time every effort should be made to help the individual participate fully and happily in the cooperative planning and work of the school and community. Every necessary step should be taken to help the beginning teacher find a satisfying and challenging place in the program. Unless this is done the idea of tenure will come into disrepute.

Special consideration should be given teachers who are physically and emotionally disturbed.

In many school systems individuals will be found who are either temporarily or permanently disturbed physically

and emotionally. Every possible means should be used to restore these people to normal health. They should be made to feel the sympathetic understanding and interest of others with regard to their personal difficulties. This is the responsibility not only of the supervisor and administrator, but also of fellow teachers, who can do much to help one another in such difficult situations. And such cooperation will take place to the extent that the school climate and organization tend to encourage and foster mutual assistance.

Adequate sick-leave policies should be established to relieve teachers when they are absent because of illness. A sufficient number of days for sick leave with pay, including cumulative rights, should be provided. Leaves of absence will often help teachers who are physically or emotionally disturbed have the rest necessary for their recovery and for resumption of full teaching responsibilities. Half-time or lightened teaching loads for a semester or year may be another means of helping teachers who need special health considerations.

Some teachers should be guided out of the profession.

Some individuals who have been good college students and who have done well in preparation for teaching, find that they are not emotionally suited to participate in an actual program of instruction. Other individuals find it difficult to operate with their co-workers in voluntary groups in a democratic and effective manner. Those who guide personnel practices in school systems should do everything possible to use and develop the best capacities of each individual. However, some persons will be found who cannot work cooperatively with others in the educational setting. These individuals probably should consider giving up teaching as a career, or they might be assigned to positions in the school system that will not make the strenuous demands upon them that classroom teaching does. Possibly they should be advised to try other kinds of work. Supervisors and administrators may in many instances help such individuals find employment in other fields that will compensate them for their years of training and work. Young people who enter the teaching profession need to know that if they cannot develop into creative and capable teachers, they will not be forced by necessity to remain in the profession.

From the long-range point of view, teacher-education institutions can help reduce the number of such cases by more careful selection and preparation of future teachers.

A cooperative, well-planned program for utilizing individuals to best advantage in schools and for helping a few dissatisfied persons out of the profession, should result eventually in improvement in the quality of school personnel.

The programs of some teachers nearing retirement should be lightened.

Occasionally a teacher nearing retirement age does not have the physical stamina of an individual in the prime of life. This experienced teacher, however, may perform invaluable services as counselor, guide, and friend for the younger teachers who are coming into the school community. A teacher near retirement may be a valuable resource, and should never be burdened with a program that is harmful or too burdensome. The cooperative planning of the school community should make full and appropriate use of the wisdom and experience of these older teachers.

Teachers should be provided an adequate retirement plan.

With an adequate salary schedule, enabling the teacher to reach the maximum salary within a period of thirteen to fifteen years, teachers may reasonably hope to live in a fair degree of comfort. However, it seems highly unlikely that salary schedules will be increased sufficiently for most teachers to save enough for their retirement years. For this reason provisions should be made for an adequate retirement for teachers.

The attitudes of teachers toward their situations and toward those in positions of leadership tend to condition their susceptibility to improvement. The motivation of a staff for its own improvement depends rather directly on the maintenance of a high level of morale. Certainly the considerateness of personnel practices is a primary factor in such morale.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE STAFF ORGANIZATION

Wise supervisors do not attempt to bring about staff improvement through edict. Experts in personnel work and human relations have learned long ago that such efforts are not very fruitful. They are ineffectual in two respects: (1) they do not produce the desired improvements since most improvement requires a degree of self-motivation; and (2) they tend to build up resentment which hinders staff rela-

tionships. Therefore, the more successful educational leaders are spending their energies in attempting to create the conditions for co-operative effort based on common purpose. In order to do this, they have utilized organizational features in the school which seem to promote understanding and facilitate progress. Good organization for staff development means that:

1. *The type of organization should be based on sound psychological principles. Attention should be given to matters of principles governing motivation, interests, experience, and incentives.*
2. *All aspects of organization for in-service growth should be co-ordinated and interrelated.*
3. *The local school should be recognized as the most logical and productive unit for organizing for improvement.*
4. *All types of educational workers should be included in the organization for staff improvement—both professional and nonteaching personnel.*
5. *Provision should be made for relating the organization and problems of the local school to those of the total school system and to those of the community.*
6. *The organization should provide for the participation of staff members in policy-making.*
7. *The organization should be such that the professional load is equally distributed.*
8. *The organization should incorporate the principle of voluntary participation in many of its processes.*
9. *The organization should avoid the creation of machinery which is not needed.*
10. *The organization should be devised with due consideration for the nature and characteristics of the staff members involved.*

As implied in these comments about organization, the way in which a group is organized depends somewhat on the purpose for which the group is brought together. In the more authoritarian situation, the group sometimes represents little more than assemblage of staff members brought together for the purpose of being informed of new decisions or next steps by the leader. Occasionally, a group is created to settle dif-

ferences among its staff members and to establish some sort of working compromise. Increasingly, however, group process is being used constructively to arrive at decisions and conclusions based on the free interchange and pooling of ideas.

Whatever the nature of the group, its success is based very largely on (1) the quality of the leadership in the group, and (2) the clarity of understanding which prevails concerning the role of individual group members. The fact that the leader does not assume a directive role should not relieve him of the responsibility of lending co-ordination to the group's efforts.

In any type of group organization, the functioning of the group is dependent on a thorough understanding of the ground rules which govern effective group process. Some of these have been suggested by Bartky² as follows:

1. In the group everyone has a responsibility to make a contribution if he has one to make.
2. In the group everyone has an obligation to listen to and analyze the contributions of other members of the group.
3. In the group a contribution once made becomes a contribution of the group. No longer should there be any association between the individual and his contribution. The purpose of this is to remove any ego involvement that might center about that contribution.
4. If it is necessary in the group to attack a contribution, the attack should be made against the idea and not the individual who presented it.
5. In the group any member who feels qualified is eligible for group leadership if the rest of the group consents.

The direction and quality of group discussion as a means for educational progress and professional growth are closely related to the role of the leader. Whether the supervisor or a member of the staff is assuming the leadership role for the group, certain functions of a leader must be recognized. According to Bartky:³

² John A. Bartky, *Supervision as Human Relations* (Boston: D. C. Heath & Company, 1953), p. 191.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 191.

1. He assists the group to organize itself.
2. He helps it set forth the rules which are to regulate its conduct.
3. He encourages the group to set up such services as it may need.
4. He tries to build an environment for the group which is free and permissive and in which everyone will feel encouraged to make contributions.
5. He attempts to make the group adopt an attitude of critical objectivity in its discussions and he does all in his power to free individual members of bigotries and other emotional sets which might inhibit rational consideration of the problems under discussion.
6. He encourages differences of opinion and discourages conflict.
7. He trains group membership into the ways of desirable group behavior.
8. He encourages the group to define its purposes and sees to it that it does not deviate from these purposes.

Suggestions of a more specific type are included in the materials which are sometimes prepared for discussion leaders at conferences and workshops. The following suggestions were distributed to discussion leaders at a recent conference of elementary-school principals.⁴

1. Check to see if materials needed for the discussion are available and ready for use.
2. Arrange the group, if possible, so that each person can see every other person. Suggest that each person remain seated when he has a contribution to make.
3. Make certain that everybody knows everybody else. If not, have each person introduce himself. As a newcomer joins the group later, introduce yourself to him and introduce him to the entire group.
4. Start the discussion on time and bring the discussion to a close on time. You may wish to establish at the beginning of the discussion the time at which it is to close.
5. In getting ready for the discussion, you should think through some questions that most likely will develop. If the discussion group is slow in getting started, you may wish to throw

⁴ From materials prepared for the Elementary Principals Conference held at Indiana University June 15-19, 1939.

out some of the significant questions and problems or ask one or more of the resource persons to make suggestions or give reactions.

6. Avoid long speeches and discourage them on the part of the other members of the discussion group. It should be understood that individual contributions are to be limited to a minute or two in length.
7. Encourage *everyone* to take part in the discussion. If any single individual fails to contribute to the extent that he is capable of contributing, the discussion falls short. Emphasize that every person's contribution counts.
8. Your help will be needed in getting questions as well as positions stated clearly. Many times discussions fall short due to the fact that ideas, questions and issues do not become clear in the minds of those in the discussion group.
9. Attempt to keep the discussion directed but let the group largely determine the direction that the discussion should take. In other words, do not overly dominate what will or will not be discussed. An occasional, very brief summary helps the group to see the direction the discussion has taken as well as the direction that it should take in the future. Resource persons usually can be helpful in keeping the discussion directed along pertinent lines.
10. In so far as possible, keep your ideas out of the discussion. Remember that your job primarily is to get the ideas of others out for an airing; however, you may need to point up any important angles that are being overlooked in the discussion. Recognize and utilize resource persons at points where the discussion seems to need impetus or direction.
11. Attempt to keep the spirits high. Encourage ease, informality, and good humor.
12. Reserve two or three minutes near the end of the discussion to summarize the discussion. In the summary you may wish to call attention to unanswered questions that warrant further discussion.

Most modern schools make some use of group meetings in the way a staff is organized for the consideration of problems and for program improvement. In the smaller schools, the group work may consist only of faculty meetings or special curriculum committees or study groups. In the larger

situations, the organization may involve an instruction council, a faculty advisory group, or a school-community study group. Regardless of the nature of the groups employed in providing for the participation of the staff in school problems and policies, most teachers find themselves members of some type of group during most of their employment period.

Although the role of the leader was emphasized in the preceding paragraphs, one of the important determinants of effective staff study groups is that of the role of the individual participating members. Each member of the group must assume that every other member has something worthwhile to contribute to the solution of the problems under consideration. No participant can afford to assume a passive role. Each has a responsibility for the direction and progress of the meeting by contributing or by redirecting, by some positive means, the tenor of the discussion.

IN-SERVICE EDUCATION OPPORTUNITIES

No one assumes any more that a teacher is professionally prepared for all his responsibilities during a four-year program of preservice preparation. In-service opportunities for extending and refining the understanding and competence of teachers are now considered to be an integral part of the professional development of the teacher. Teachers should recognize in the programs offered some types of opportunity for professional growth since most school systems attempt to provide varied in-service activities for teachers. Supervisors and administrators should work for the effective co-ordination of all types of in-service activities in terms of a consistent philosophy and the identified needs of teachers. In the Fifty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, some generalizations to guide the in-service education provided by the school are suggested:⁶

⁶ Jo Kinnick et al., "The Teachers and the In-service Education Program," in *In-service Education*, Fifty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1937), pp. 151-52.

1. In-service educations means a program by which *all persons* engaged in education learn and grow together and not a program for making up teacher deficiencies.
2. An interested, fair-minded administrator is essential to the success of any in-service program.
3. The emotional climate which prevails in the in-service program is as important as the goals sought and largely determines the goals attained.
4. Teachers should have some part in setting up programs of in-service education, if only the privilege of voting on several plans, preferably more than two.
5. Individual differences among teachers should be recognized in setting up in-service education plans. Sometimes recognition of these differences will supply different learning experiences for beginning teachers, for teachers new in a school system or a school building but not new to teaching, for teachers in various subject-matter fields, for teachers at the same grade level, for teachers at all stages of professional growth who need and want in-service programs of extension, that is, programs presenting their subject-matter fields in *new dimensions*.
6. A primary purpose of in-service programs should be the development in every participant of a sensitivity to the viewpoints of others.
7. Whenever possible, in-service programs should utilize the values of informal groups within the structure of the formal organization.
8. The boundaries of teacher participation and decision within each school needs to be clearly defined so that in-service groups will know what problems they are free to tackle.
9. Good communication at each level and between all levels of the school society are necessary for the maximum success of the in-service guidelines in action.
10. Conflicts between administrative values and goal values are more easily solved when *discussed frankly by teachers and administrators*.
11. Time is the most pressing resource problem in in-service education. In areas where the level of teachers' salaries makes it necessary for family heads to undertake supplementary jobs, in-service education should not involve after-

school time. Such education should be an opportunity, not a penalty.

12. Evaluation of in-service programs by "evidence" of improved classroom teaching is the best evaluation, but we need many studies to help us discover why and how teachers change their perceptions and how those changed perceptions result in improved learning experiences in the classroom.

In the same volume it is pointed out that programs and group activities differ in terms of focus of attention around which they are developed. To illustrate this idea in terms of action, the types of diversity that may exist concerning committee groups and activities are suggested.⁶ They may be:

1. Task-centered—working on a particular, limited job such as the revision of a report card or making a report to the community or board
2. Idea-centered—focused on the clarification of concepts, or philosophy, such as a committee preparing a preliminary statement on social-studies objectives for the local elementary program
3. Problem-centered—not centered on a particular problem but on using the methodology of identifying, refining, and working toward solutions of many different problems. Many grade-level groups and departments operate this way, as do action research study groups
4. Production-centered—focused on the preparation of particular instructional materials or equipment: kindergarten teachers making new play equipment; teachers preparing a language-arts guide
5. Skill-centered—focused on the development of skills needed in teaching or administration: an art workshop for elementary teachers; a leadership-training group for principals
6. Policy-centered—focused on the development of general guides to action: a representative group surveys parents, teachers, and administrators and submits a draft of a statement on P.T.A. fund-raising activities relevant to the school program

⁶ Matthew B. Miles and A. Harry Passow, "Training in the Skills Needed for In-service Education Programs," *ibid.*, p. 353.

7. *Appreciation-centered—focused on the general education of participants: a graduate course in philosophy of education; credit for travel during the summer; music appreciation series.*

In order to provide for better co-ordination of in-service activities, some school systems have created a steering committee or faculty in-service educational council. Such groups are usually composed of representatives from the various teacher groups within the school system. Such councils can perform such functions as:

1. Formulating a program of professional activities for the consideration and possible approval of the total faculty
2. Conducting surveys to determine the most pressing problems and prevailing interests of teachers. These problems and interests presumably are used to guide the faculty in deciding on the most valuable types of in-service activities
3. Establishing and co-ordinating the work of special committees created to study a particular problem of the faculty
4. Arranging for in-service seminars, forums, and programs to be given on a school system-wide basis
5. Acting as a co-ordinating agency for the various activities being planned and conducted throughout the school system
6. Assisting in the evaluation of in-service activities.

Some of the ways in which the supervisory or administrative leader can contribute to the success of teacher-improvement activities are such as the following: (1) work for the understanding of the community concerning the value of in-service programs, (2) provide some school time for worthwhile professional activities, (3) see that individual teachers and groups get proper recognition for activities which have valuable results, and (4) provide for the administrative mechanics necessary for some types of professional programs.

IMPROVING EFFECTIVENESS OF STAFF MEMBERS

Although the role of the modern supervisor has taken on considerable importance in relationship to group leadership,

a major portion of the supervisor's time still is spent in his professional contacts with individual teachers. It is an essential part of his responsibility to lend support and encouragement to the teacher with instructional problems. In the main, the supervisor has four kinds of contacts with the individual teacher: (1) through planned classroom visits; (2) through conferences held in the classroom or office; (3) through casual contacts with teachers in the school or community; and (4) through social gatherings.

The relationships between supervisor and classroom teacher are extremely important in determining the likelihood of professional growth on the part of the teacher. There are certain attitudes and actions by the supervisor which tend to motivate teachers to greater effectiveness; on the other hand, the supervisor may behave in such a manner as to deter the possibility of professional growth by the teacher. A few of the elements that seem to promote improvement in teachers are discussed in the following paragraphs.

CONSIDERATE WORKING RELATIONSHIPS

Some of the attitudes and practices of supervisors which promote effective human relations were noted in Chapter 4. These personal characteristics can be supplemented by some further examples of considerateness in the supervisor's working relationship with teachers. Some of these are:

1. Showing respect for the teacher in the presence of pupils
2. Making sure that necessary criticisms are professional rather than personal in nature
3. Impressing teachers with one's willingness to learn from them
4. Never criticizing one teacher's weaknesses with another teacher
5. Providing channels for the prompt consideration of teachers' grievances or requests
6. Being accessible to teachers who need and desire help
7. Consulting with teachers before taking action which affects them directly

8. Avoiding promises that cannot be kept
9. Using a sense of humor to relieve tensions and anxieties
10. Taking a sympathetic approach to the personal problems of teachers.

The supervisor's success is not measured by what he does *to* teachers but rather by what he does *with* them. Supervision is no longer considered to be a one-way process. Cooperation is the key to any kind of truly effective supervisory activity. Not much is accomplished by telling teachers what they should do and how they should improve. It is far more productive for the supervisor to engage in a joint co-operative effort with the teacher that permits the teacher to "learn by doing."

Another way in which teachers may become partners in the supervisory process is through the use of the leadership capabilities of various individuals on the staff. In faculty meetings and in other group situations, individual teachers can assume leadership roles for the duration of a discussion of a problem area in which they have unusual interest or ability.

MAINTAINING ESPRIT DE CORPS

A happy teacher is a more productive teacher. While it obviously is not the primary purpose of the school to provide for zestful living on the part of staff members, it can be easily observed that the *esprit de corps* of teachers is an important ingredient in the effectiveness of the modern elementary school. Several factors affect the degree to which teachers find their work to be pleasant. Some of them are: (1) the physical and mental health of the teacher; (2) the comfort of the surroundings; (3) the appropriateness of the teacher's assignment in relation to his major interests and competencies; (4) the quality of his working relations with other members of the staff; (5) the feeling that a sense of fairness governs the tasks teachers are required to perform; (6) a sense of achievement in his accomplishment with children; and (7) a sense of appreciation that others have for

his efforts and achievements. In the final analysis, the truly professional teacher gets his greatest and most enduring enjoyment from seeing evidences of growth in children as a result of his efforts.

HANDICAPPING TEACHING CONDITIONS

Two sets of conditions act on the effectiveness of the individual teacher. One consists of the array of positive resources he has for getting his job done in a successful manner. The second has to do with the obstacles which must be overcome to enjoy successful achievement. This quite obviously suggests a dual responsibility on the part of the supervisor. He must capitalize, of course, on the strengths and resources of the teacher in building the over-all morale and competence of the staff. He also must work to remove the hindrances which teachers encounter as they perform the responsibilities of their teaching assignments. Some of the conditions which may be alleviated by an intelligent, skilled supervisor are: (1) minor health problems and fatigue of teachers; (2) conflicts which arise between or among staff members and which are based on misunderstandings; (3) lack of information by teachers of school developments which affect them; (4) unreasonable teaching loads; (5) insufficient instructional materials and resources; (6) unreasonable classroom size; (7) troublesome family and living conditions; and (8) lack of professional confidence.

The supervisor must first identify the problem conditions inherent in the teacher's situation before he can take steps toward alleviating them. It is necessary, of course, to exercise wisdom in deciding on the kind of approach that might yield best results. Sometimes the best approach will be a rather direct attack on the problem. In most cases, however, a more subtle approach is usually best.

Many teachers become so frustrated with the barrage of different routine assignments given them that they become bogged down with indifference or discouragement. As valuable as committee work may be, it is altogether possible to

overload teachers with such assignments to the point that their proficiency in teaching levels off, or even *deteriorates*. Realism demands that teachers assume some obligations for the routine tasks which must be done in the day-to-day operation of a school program. It is tragic, though, when teachers feel that they are expending more of their energies in administrative minutiae than in planning and carrying on worthwhile learning experiences for the children in their classrooms. By exercising judgment in this respect, the supervisor usually can guarantee a minimum of disturbance to the teaching-learning situation.

PROVIDING OPPORTUNITIES FOR GROWTH

There are several ways in which a teacher may provide for his own professional growth through individual activity. The supervisor can be helpful, of course, by providing resources which can be tapped by the teacher. Some of the activities which have value are: (1) reading books from the professional library on such subjects as child development and psychology; (2) *reading books on current affairs* of importance and interest; (3) doing professional writing for magazines or newspapers; (4) engaging in programs of professional organizations; (5) participating in educational travel projects; (6) pursuing graduate study; and (7) leading parent study-groups. The supervisor can contribute to this process of individual growth through helping provide the opportunities for worthwhile activities and by encouraging and commending teachers as they successfully engage in such projects.

PROVIDING FOR CLASSROOM VISITATION

Since the home base of the teacher's primary activity is the classroom, it is what happens in the classroom that gives the supervisor the basis for analyzing, evaluating, and improving the effectiveness of the teacher. Though modern supervision has employed many forms of group activity in its processes, there is still a practical need for classroom visita-

tion by the supervisor. Several values may be derived from judicious observation of the teaching-learning situation by the supervisor. It provides an opportunity for him to identify the needs of the teacher, to discover points of strength and weakness, to sense possible means for motivating the teacher, and to judge firsthand the quality of human relations found in the classroom.

It must be admitted that a visit by the supervisor tends to create unnatural conditions in the classroom. However unobtrusive, his presence becomes a distraction and the learning situation may become somewhat artificial in many respects. It seems best for the supervisor to enter the room in the manner that would be expected of any visitor and to maintain an informal, courteous, but businesslike manner during the period of his visit. It sometimes appears that a supervisor's obvious efforts to be unnoticed create more of a concern than would otherwise be the case.

During a classroom visitation, the supervisor will be concerned with such matters as: (1) the physical aspects of the classroom; (2) the adequacy or lack of materials needed by the teacher; (3) the evidences of teacher-pupil purposes; (4) teacher-pupil relationships; (5) routine management procedures in the classroom; (6) nature of planning and organization of learning experiences; (7) the teacher's mental and emotional outlook; and (8) the techniques of evaluation utilized in the teaching-learning process.

There are at least three crucial aspects of the supervisor's visit to the classroom. They are: (1) the manner of his entrance and greeting; (2) his conduct during the visit; and (3) the provisions that are made for a follow-up of the visit.

HELPING TEACHERS WITH PROBLEMS

The preceding paragraphs of this section have dealt with considerations that apply quite generally to the supervisor's working relationships with all teachers in order to improve the effectiveness of the staff. The supervisor on the job soon finds, however, that teachers represent a wide range of indi-

vidual differences with respect to professional preparation, experience, personality, and ability. It seems almost inevitable that each school have on its staff one or more teachers with problems of such nature that they interfere with the teacher's effectiveness.

In the main, the types of teachers which will require the most attention from the supervisor are (1) the teacher who lacks experience, (2) the teacher who lacks social and emotional adjustment, and (3) the teacher who lacks ability.

In the case of the inexperienced teacher, his problem may be solved with time. As was pointed out in another connection earlier, it is impossible for the preservice preparation of a teacher to equip him completely for the myriad decisions and problems which face him in the classroom. Some things will be learned only with experience. It is important, though, in providing the opportunity for young teachers to gain needed experience, that: (1) they are placed in assignments most suitable to their professional level of development and (2) that children be protected, insofar as possible, from a long association with teachers who are experiencing unusual difficulty in the classroom. It is very important for such teachers to develop wholesome and helpful relations with other more experienced members of the staff and to participate in the normal group activities of the staff.

The supervisor must demonstrate a sympathetic and helpful attitude toward the teacher with emotional problems, at least until it is determined that the seriousness of the problem precludes the possibility of alleviation. Some minor abnormalities may be attributable to physical causes and may tend to be minimized when such teachers receive appropriate medical care. If the abnormality is serious and not subject to improvement, reassignment or even termination of the teacher's employment may be in order.

In spite of the intelligence of the great majority of teachers, a few members of the profession appear to lack either the temperament or the ability to succeed in teaching. Regardless of the quality of the in-service attempts to help such teachers grow, it is not being very realistic to expect

that any notable improvement will result. In-service activities by the supervisor and the staff will help teachers realize their potentialities through professional growth, but they do not possess the necessary magic to help a teacher perform beyond the level of his inherent ability. In general, such teachers should be guided out of the profession. However, before generalizing too broadly, one should recognize that occasionally a difference exists between a teacher's discovered ability and his actual ability. In these infrequent cases, the trouble usually lies with the lack of motivation of the teacher and, therefore, wise and sympathetic help from the supervisor may salvage a moderately successful teacher for the profession.

In his attempts to help and guide teachers with problems, the supervisor must demonstrate tact, sympathy, and skill. The competent supervisor:

1. Is careful not to add to the discouragement of a teacher by dramatizing the problem in his approach or initial remarks
2. Does not brand the teacher as a failure
3. Does not take over the problem but rather, works with the teacher on the problem
4. Demonstrates an awareness of possible difficulties of the teacher in such a way that the teacher helps discover the solution
5. Helps the teacher diagnose possible causes of difficulty
6. Helps the teacher evaluate possible alternatives to remedial action
7. Protects the integrity and self-respect of the teacher
8. Tries to discover some means of increasing the motivation of the teacher.

IMPROVING EFFECTIVENESS OF GROUP APPROACHES

The supervisor works with teachers as individuals and in group situations. The preceding section, as well as a brief section in Chapter 4, was devoted to a consideration of the individual contacts of supervisors and teachers. At this point, it may be helpful to explore a bit further some of the

more important considerations which should govern group processes in supervision, and to apply these considerations to a few of the more typical group situations in supervision.

STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES OF GROUP SUPERVISION

Not all educators agree as to the relative merits of individual and group approaches to supervision. In view of what appears to be an increasing emphasis on group process in supervision, therefore, it seems desirable to mention a few of the strengths and weaknesses that have been ascribed to group supervision. Ayer listed the following as being worth noting. According to Ayer,⁷ the strong and weak points ascribed to group supervisors are these:

Strong Points

1. Develops better policies and procedures by pooling the productivity of the entire group; shares information
2. Creates better staff morale and improved personal and social relationships
3. Increases competent participation by group members; increases production
4. Respects the worth, feelings, and individuality of teachers
5. Increases understanding and regard for democratic process
6. Develops leadership ability among members
7. Develops better understanding of problems of administrative leaders
8. Ties the supervisory program closer to the needs and possibilities of the local situation
9. Increases willingness of teachers to serve in co-operative supervisory projects
10. Stimulates leaders to better planning
11. Provides for greater flexibility in the operation of projects
12. Increases general participation by all members.

Weak Points

1. Operates too slowly; takes too much time and effort for the results secured.

⁷ Fred C. Ayer, *Fundamentals of Instructional Supervision* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1954), pp. 114-15.

2. Undertakes work which could be better planned and carried on by trained individuals; lowers the level of leadership.
3. Takes time from teachers which could be spent more profitably elsewhere.
4. Deprives individual teachers of needed expert supervision and guidance.
5. Involves too many teachers who are incompetent to co-operate effectively.
6. Involves too many teachers who are unwilling to assume responsibility.
7. Discourages direct supervision; causes administrators to shed their supervisory responsibilities.
8. Involves too many transportation, schedule, and meeting-place difficulties for continuous operation.
9. Lacks in interests and problems common to all members.
10. Places consideration of teachers, rather than pupils, as the chief criterion of successful supervision.
11. Accepts form rather than the spirit of democracy. Teachers either dominate or are the tools of administrators.
12. Fails to provide for urgent situations.

Group supervision takes many forms in terms of immediate and long-range purposes of the administration and staff. It is involved in faculty meetings, workshops, and all types of committee and special group work. Viewed another way, three general types of groups established in terms of general purposes are group work for orientation purposes, regular group meetings concerned with the general operation of the school, and group meetings and processes used for particular purposes on a short-term basis.

SUPERVISORY CONCERNS IN GROUP WORK

It is not the purpose here to suggest all of the possible components which combine to create optimum conditions for group work. Some of these were emphasized in Chapter 4 as a part of the discussion of human relations in supervision. It seems desirable to reiterate here, however, the two basic conditions without which no group can really achieve its level of productiveness, morale, and unity and cohesiveness.

Many things contribute to the morale of teachers. Some of the practices which appear to affect morale favorably are: (1) giving teachers a voice in decision-making; (2) making sure that teachers receive recognition for their work; (3) planning carefully for the orientation and induction of new teachers; (4) providing continuing opportunities for teachers to be heard; and (5) maintaining a reasonably permissive climate within the school.

Cohesiveness of the staff in group work comes largely from unity of purpose. If teachers have an opportunity to work on problems that are real to individuals and yet which have been experienced by a number of teachers, they are more likely to attack the problems as a unitary group.

Aside from a primary concern with the two previously discussed conditions for improving the effectiveness of group work, the supervisor should be concerned with other factors which help determine the ultimate value to be derived from group work. He should be conscious at all times of the desirability of:

1. Relating process to product. Group work should not be proposed nor used on the sole basis of the product which will result. It is equally essential that groups be set up in terms of what effects they may have on teachers who participate in them. Group interaction should be considered as one of the basic means of improving staff effectiveness.
2. Relating techniques to problems. The kind of group that is established should be determined largely on the basis of the nature of the problem to be attacked, or the purpose to be served. One of the goals of group work should be to help teachers grow in the ability to see the interrelationships between theoretical aspects of a problem and their implications for action.
3. Projecting study and work beyond the boundaries of the group. Group work should provide for subgroup work and stimulate individual study. If groups are characterized by free discussion and provocative interchange of ideas, further growth of participants can accrue from an extension of their activities beyond the group itself.
4. Harmonizing differences among staff members. Honest differ-

ence of opinion often is a stimulant to creative thinking. However, the supervisory leader should help the group agree on major values, accord to all the privilege of being heard, and develop the skills necessary for arriving at consensus and intelligent compromise.

5. Providing human factors. Groups work best when there is an air of good humor pervading the atmosphere. This can be encouraged by the use of informality and by combining social and professional considerations in arranging the conditions under which the group will work.

TYPES OF GROUPS

Although groups are somewhat similar in terms of the conditions necessary for effective function, they may be quite different in terms of purpose. The reason for which groups are created, in turn, is often related to factors of size, techniques, and physical arrangements. Three general purposes of groups were mentioned in the preceding section. Types of groups related to these purposes are discussed briefly in the following paragraphs.

ORIENTATION GROUPS

Increasing attention is being given to the value of orientation activities, particularly those designed for teachers new to the school. While many of the helps to the new teacher can be given best on an individual basis, there are many aspects of orientation which lend themselves to the group approach.

Through the activities designed for new teachers, administrators and supervisors should keep in mind some of the basic needs of these people. They include the need for a working understanding of such things as:

1. The school's philosophy and history
2. The school plant and facilities, and the regulations for their use
3. The pupil accounting and personnel procedures in use
4. The program of the school and the manner in which it is organized

5. General and special conditions of the teaching assignment
6. School regulations governing pupil management and control, playground supervision, and handling of records
7. Community environment, traditions, and mores
8. Professional meetings and staff obligations.

~ Many schools now combine the features of the conventional teachers' institute with newer approaches to teacher orientation in the use of the preschool workshop or preschool conference. This usually combines some group activity with opportunities for individual teachers to get acquainted with physical surroundings and materials in advance of enrollment day in the school.

REGULAR GROUPS

Most schools are organized to provide for regular meetings of the staff, both as a whole and in subgroups, on a periodic basis throughout the school year. These faculty meetings should provide the opportunity for wholesome interaction of administrative personnel, supervisory personnel, and teaching staff. Traditionally, faculty meetings have been devoted largely to administrative matters and have been under the dominance of the school administrators. Certain newer practices of promise are beginning to reshape the nature of such meetings in many schools. Some of these trends are:

1. Occasional use of teachers as discussion leaders at faculty meetings
2. Greater participation of the teaching staff in the determination of the agenda for faculty meetings
3. Greater concern with the discussion of instructional problems at faculty meetings
4. Greater continuity in the matters discussed from meeting to meeting
5. Injection of more informality in the surroundings for faculty meetings
6. Appropriate inclusion of members of the school staff other than teachers
7. Occasional use of school time for faculty meetings.

SPECIAL GROUPS

One of the basic premises of modern supervision is that the technique should be developed in terms of the need. As needs for curriculum revision, reconsideration of specific school policies, or rethinking the school's evaluating and reporting procedures arise, the staff must be organized to work co-operatively on the problem. Quite naturally, the nature of the group structure will be determined by the problem and by the local conditions which prevail. In the main, though, attack on special or temporary problems is accomplished through such groups as standing committees, *ad hoc* committees, advisory councils, study groups or workshops. In creating the appropriate group within the school structure, administrators and supervisors should remember that such groups may have at least three purposes and thus should be formed accordingly in terms of size, membership, and time allowed for work. The special groups may be:

1. Learning groups in which the main purpose is to become informed and to develop the skills of working together
2. Sharing groups in which the purpose is to pool ideas as the basis for coming to decisions or policies
3. Producing groups in which the purpose is to create new approaches or develop new materials or devices.

One of the group techniques which has attracted very widespread attention in recent years is the workshop. Its greatest value lies in the opportunity it affords members of a staff to work co-operatively on problems of concern to them without the restrictions which usually accompany more conventional types of organization. Increasingly, schools are co-operating with colleges and universities in sponsoring in-service workshops for teachers. Such workshops provide for serious work under functional working conditions and pleasant social conditions.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE SUPERVISOR

If the staff is to increase its effectiveness, the leadership of the supervisor is extremely important. Some of the super-

visory means for helping teachers improve are indicated throughout this chapter. However, in summary, certain implications stand out for the supervisor if he is to make a maximum contribution to this process of improvement. Some of them are:

1. Changes in adult attitudes and behavior come very slowly. Therefore, the supervisor must be patient as well as insightful, when working to help individual teachers improve their effectiveness.
2. There should be a balance of individual and group approaches to staff improvement.
3. The supervisor is a key figure in the organization and guiding of group processes although he should not feel he must direct such activities.
4. The physical environment is an important factor in effective group process and in the individual attitudes of teachers.
5. Supervisory techniques should encourage initiative and participation on the part of teachers but should not demand from them group skills beyond their level of development.
6. Teachers should have an opportunity to participate in the evaluation of various supervisory processes utilized in staff organization for program improvement.

SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVING UNDERSTANDING OF SUPERVISORY PROCESSES

1. Find out what is done in your local school community to contribute to the professional growth of teachers in service.
2. Make a survey among your teacher friends to determine what they believe to be the major strengths and weaknesses of faculty meetings.
3. Make an analysis of your last experience as a member of a discussion group. What elements of the situation were related to the basic considerations governing good group process?
4. Talk with a superintendent of schools regarding the program of in-service activities provided for teachers. Find out what he has found to be the most valuable ways to help the orientation of new teachers.

5. Consult a good book on personnel and guidance procedures and compare the ideas presented there with those found in the field of supervision.

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Chapter 14

Current Challenges in Supervision

American schools are both the instruments and products of a changing culture. They reflect the history, the status, and the aspirations of our society. The current stage of development of American education has come about as a result of many forces. The path of progress, extending from early educational patterns borrowed largely from a European culture to the community-centered elementary school of today, has not been devoid of turbulence. Puritan New England represented more a theocracy than a democracy and the schools of that time and region reflected a form of discipline and organization more characteristic of authoritarianism than of democracy. Yet out of these early beginnings there gradually emerged an educational system more consistent with the developing concept of the "American way of life." Other developments which periodically have shaken the foundations of our social and economic life have affected the nature of our schools but have not substantially changed the course of their evolving destiny as the prime force for sustaining and improving the basic structure of our democratic society. American education survived the impact of the Revolutionary War, the Civil War, and two bloody world wars with the net result that this country, having emerged as a major world power, has placed increasing faith in, and greater demands on, public education as an instrument of strength and progress.

The history of American education also reflects the impact of the industrial revolution whereby there has been a shift from an agrarian type of society to one which is basically industrial in nature. The accompanying urbanization of the population brought corresponding changes in education. One effect has been the gradual disappearance of the one-room rural school as schools have tended to become centralized around more densely populated centers. The shifting of the wealth, in terms of personal income and taxable property, toward metropolitan areas has also had an effect on the support and programs of schools.

The developments just mentioned illustrate that public education has been continuously subjected to the ferment of social, political, and economic change and yet has emerged as the most potent weapon of a free people for protecting their freedoms. Much of the sustaining vigor of the schools has been rooted in the idealism underlying our way of life. The concept of the equal rights of all people for an education is basically a moral consideration. The establishment of publicly supported schools which are free to all, regardless of creed or circumstance, is a reflection of a concern for the individual as well as for the common good.

The public school today is the resultant of two types of forces. The first is the thread of democratic philosophy which is interwoven into its development. The second is the impact of social change. Schools, then, have been the products of both tradition and challenge, and neither has been solely good or bad. Some educational traditions have kept the schools close to their social role in a free society; others have tended to stifle educational progress. Some problems as challenges have led to educational research and improvement; others have been obstacles to the full realization of the potentially possible development of better educational programs.

One of the features of a dynamic civilization is change. It is not possible to eliminate the process of change from the affairs of mankind; it is possible only to attempt to guarantee that change occurs in a constructive manner and in a positive

direction. Education, as a social process, cannot be impervious to change. It must remain a process through which people may analyze change and react to it in an increasingly intelligent manner.

The modern elementary school is operating somewhere between the traditions of the past and the frontiers of the future. The nature of its program has been shaped both by the prevailing concerns of society and by the creative thinking and research of educational leaders. Though he may view with alarm some of the developments of this era which seem to place new demands on the school, the alert educator senses in them a real professional challenge. Some such developments are a part of an on-going effort of people for a better life, while others are by-products of changing elements of our modern society. Nearly all of them have implications for education and for educational leadership. This chapter, therefore, will examine briefly some of the educational challenges and problems which confront educators at this time. Specifically, attention will be given to some basic considerations related to educational and social change, challenges and problems related to the organization of the school, challenges and problems related to teachers, challenges related to some societal concerns and developments, and some implications for educational supervision.

CONSIDERATIONS RELATED TO EDUCATIONAL CHANGE

While our modern society has evidenced a considerable faith in schools as the basic institutions for perpetuating its values, it nevertheless has not provided a very clear and consistent picture of what is expected of schools. At times, it has appeared that the public has wanted greater uniformity of the educational program around a few basic functions but yet has vigorously insisted on local autonomy in the formulation and management of the school program. Even further, it has wanted good schools but it has not always wanted to pay the price necessary for educational programs

of high quality. There has been a general insistence on schools that reflect the American way of life but there has been some variation of opinion as to just what constitutes such a philosophy. In view of some of these seeming inconsistencies, perhaps it is well to discuss a few basic observations which are related to some emerging developments in education.

Modern civilization is a product of change. Throughout history, all living beings have been motivated to satisfy their needs and to pursue their wants. Dissatisfactions have led to efforts to rectify conditions in such a manner that satisfactions were produced; tensions produce efforts to bring relief from tensions. Through social processes man has continuously sought to improve his lot. True, his efforts have not always been consistent or even constructive. Indeed, some of the motivations of mankind toward change have been downright disastrous in their results, bringing conflict and even war. In the main, however, civilization as we know it today has been the cumulative result of social, economic, and political change, operating, in general, against a backdrop of Judeo-Christian ethics. While a sustaining idealism lends a needed stability to a developing civilization, a civilization gets its dynamism from its susceptibility to constructive change.

The modern era is one of rapid change. Change has been a prevailing characteristic of the human race throughout its history, but never has change occurred so rapidly as during the twentieth century. Indeed, the pace of change, instead of slackening in the last few years, has been accelerated to an even greater degree. Many factors and conditions have contributed to the rapidity with which modifications in our modes of living have been brought about. The tempo of the assembly-line method of production and the jet-powered airliner seems to have permeated most of the day-to-day activities of our citizenry. More effective means of transportation make for long-range and continuous interaction of individuals, and rapid communication has brought the news of events almost instantaneously to the attention of the en-

ture population. Developments in mass communication of all types have made it possible to influence the opinions of millions of persons with a single effort. A better educated populace may be more imaginative and thus a bit more susceptible and adaptable to change. These and many other factors undoubtedly affect the rapid pace at which change occurs in this age. Schools, quite naturally, find it difficult to adjust their programs rapidly enough to correspond to the pace of change in other areas of human activity.

Education is related to change. An educated people are much more likely to find new solutions to their problems. The kinds of insights which come from improved skills and broadened understandings are contributors to the process of constructive social change. Education also provides the general base of understanding upon which the skills necessary for technical advances are built. As a whole, the process of education has produced a people usually willing to approach problem conditions in an analytical way. Education, of course, also has been primarily instrumental in producing leaders in all fields of the physical and social sciences. In turn, such leaders have had a considerable effect on the kinds of change which have occurred in this area.

Education is related to change in another way. In fact, its main obligation is that of effecting certain types of changes in individuals. Some of these desired changes in behavior have been related to skills; others have been concerned with understanding, attitudes, and appreciations.

Educational programs are shaped by many forces. Schools have not developed into their present form through an automatic type of evolution. Their nature is caused by the combination of forces which affect them. These forces may be categorized in many different ways. They may be thought of in terms of geographical scope. Some of them emerge from community interests, or even from within the local school structure. Others may arise from state and national developments or concerns, and still others may be the result of considerations which are world-wide in scope and interest. Looking at these forces another way, it can

be seen that some of them are expressions of a changing society while others get their impetus from the deliberations of professional leaders in education.

Forces affecting schools also may be classified in terms of their nature. Some of these influences arise from social developments, others from economic conditions, and still others from civic and political considerations. Though each of these types may be slightly different in nature, they are all interrelated in their implications for education.

Societal change brings educational frontiers. Throughout this volume, emphasis has been placed on the fact that schools exist for the benefit of both individuals and society. Maintaining a delicate and workable balance between corporate welfare and individual freedom and initiative is the basic task of our form of government. From the time of our forefathers up to the present day, belief in the vital role of public education in meeting this obligation has been considered basic to our development as a growing nation. Hence, there has developed a unique relationship between the *changing temper of society and education*. When one recognizes this relationship, he can more readily understand that the phenomenon of change in social, economic, or political affairs often brings an impact on the schools of the period. It is true that schools often have been slow to reflect in their programs the effects of change in other areas of human experience. This condition is not without virtue since schools are not solely instruments of social change but also serve as the organized agency for perpetuating a cumulative heritage. As such, they must represent the skillful blending of the stability of traditional values with the stimulation of progressive innovation. Thoughtful educators are forced, therefore, to examine the educational possibilities of frontiers which a changing culture projects.

Educational frontiers present problems. The strong faith which the American people have in education has sometimes caused them to expect too much from their schools. The combined demands of our cherished concept of education for all, a rapidly growing population of people to be edu-

cated, and an ever-broadening set of educational aims and activities have sometimes brought problems of local and national concern. How to provide educational programs which reflect the urgent needs of the present without reducing the emphasis on prevailing values of the past is a dilemma with which education is faced during any era of change. Protecting the emphasis on the development of the individual within a system of mass production is another illustration of the type of problems faced by schools.

Educational frontiers present challenges. Many of the technical inventions which have brought comfort and convenience to man have been the result of his struggle with obstacles which have confronted him. It is doubtful that modern home heating-systems would have been invented if people had never suffered the discomforts of cold, or that air-conditioning equipment would have appeared if no one had experienced the effects of unduly hot, humid, summer days in certain geographical regions. In other areas of human experience, as well as in the field of technological development, progress is often activated by problem-situations. This can be as true in education as in any other public concern. Many of the problem-situations in education, of course, spring from the need for some type of adjustment to changing needs or conditions. When they are met intelligently, objectively, and co-operatively, such concerns can serve as genuine challenges to action both by the citizenry as a whole and by the leadership which is inherent in the educational profession.

Educational problems and challenges take many forms. The educational problems and challenges that face many communities today are varied in nature and scope. Some are the expressions of broad national, or even world, concern; others grow out of the particular needs or limitations of resources of the local community. They also vary in intensity and seriousness. While some of the problems that schools face, such as those related to the fluctuations of the birth rate in this country, are somewhat temporary in character, others are rooted rather deeply in long-range ideolog-

ical considerations. At the operational level in the schools, some of these concerns have implications for the nature of school organization, some are related to the curriculum, and still others suggest connotations for the ways in which people work together for educational progress.

Supervisory leadership is a vital force in an era of change. Group effort may be positive or negative. Mob action on the basis of impulsiveness is always a threat to freedom. Intelligent and concerted effort, on the other hand, is essential to progress. Educational progress involves the thinking and contributions of many individuals and agencies if it is to meet the challenges of a changing society. The effectiveness with which these varied efforts and interests are focalized on pertinent issues, and co-ordinated skillfully in the study of these issues, depends very largely on the quality of educational leadership found in the schools. By the very nature of their positions, supervisors have an obligation, and the opportunity, to furnish democratic leadership in the important process of working for better schools.

CHALLENGES RELATED TO SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

Periodically throughout this volume, attention has been drawn to the remarkable achievements of the American public school system. In spite of occasional disturbing influences and lack of support, the public schools of this country have charted and followed a course which represents progress in both the nature and scope of education. No one has a more acute awareness than educators, however, of how far many school programs fall short of ideal standards. This recognition has spurred continuous efforts by educators to meet new situations with improved educational organization and procedures. Educational research, combined with the thoughtful analysis of experience, *has indicated some frontiers along which improvements need to be made. Some of these are rather closely related to the organization and program of the schools as they exist today. Some of the more*

vital areas of challenge involve problems of organization, articulation, co-ordination, differentiation, and evaluation.

PROBLEMS OF ORGANIZATION

One of the persistent problems facing administrators and teachers has been that of reconciling conventional types of school organization with newer discoveries in the fields of psychology and child development. Failure of the conventional, rigid types of organization according to arbitrary grade standards has not provided the flexibility necessary for dealing successfully with the variations in the growth patterns of children as they progress through the elementary school. Recognition of this basic inadequacy in the traditional pattern of organization has led to many opinions and plans for bringing greater flexibility into the structure of the school. In spite of minor adjustments in the standard types of organization, professional imagination and research activities are still needed to bring about an organization of learning experiences more in keeping with what is now known about children and how they learn.

There are two basic dimensions of organization which affect children. One is the horizontal classification and grouping of children as they live and learn together. From the moment children enter the door of the school building on the first day of school, they are placed in some kind of group situation. Many types of factors determine the nature of these groups. They may be determined by the philosophy of the school or the administrator, by the size of the enrollment, by the preparation and size of the teaching staff, or by other administrative considerations. In recent years, considerable controversy has surrounded the question of the value of homogeneous grouping on a school-wide basis as compared with heterogeneous grouping. While there has been a recent trend toward more heterogeneous types of grouping, much more needs to be known about the basic educational benefits to be derived from each. Particular questions are raised almost continuously about the feasibility

of special groups for gifted children and other types of exceptional children.

Although some form of instructional grouping within each classroom has now become accepted procedure in most schools, there are still unsolved problems related to the proper balance of total group activity, special group activity, and individual activity within the classroom.

Another dimension of organization is related to the vertical movement of children through the various levels of the school program. The crux of this problem is the need for reconciling the administrative progress of the child with his educational progress. The fact that a child is said to be in the third grade, or is promoted to the fourth grade, does not change his educational status and growth to the slightest degree. The troublesome, but true, realization that a child's educational growth cannot be made to conform with the arbitrary blocks of time or the graded machinery of the school, emphasizes the need for intelligent effort to contrive means for adjusting the machinery of pupil progress to the child's growth pattern.

Some of the problems of organization are related to trends concerning the scope of the school program. Throughout the history of schools in the United States, there has been a continuing trend toward a lengthened school year. Early schools were in session no longer than a few months each calendar year as contrasted to some schools now that operate a program for children throughout the entire year. Although all-year schools currently exist in very few communities, considerable thought and discussion is being directed to the possibility of the further development of the all-year school idea. Arguments, of course, are presented on both sides of the question. Many contend that such a plan would provide for more efficient utilization of school facilities and would assure worthwhile activities for children throughout the entire year, thus preventing the learning losses experienced by children under the typical plan for the school year. Critics of the idea of the all-year school point out that children need a vacation period free from the physical, mental, and emo-

tional strains of the organized school program. Furthermore, they point out that the summer climate of many regions of the country is not conducive to school attendance. The fact remains that the all-year school is an organizational plan which needs thorough examination, study, and research in order to more fully determine its possibilities.

Trends involving the longitudinal scope of the school program have been accompanied by corresponding developments with respect to the latitudinal boundaries of the school operation. Learning experiences in early schools were carried on almost exclusively within the four walls of the classroom. As the purposes of education have been broadened, the activities designed to achieve these purposes have extended into areas of the school and community outside the classroom proper. Children have been taken into the community for functional experiences and community resources have been incorporated into the curriculum of the school. Closely related to this broadening base for the teaching-learning operation is the growing attention given to *outdoor education*. The emerging emphasis on the learning values to be derived from outdoor education has resulted largely from an extension of the school camping idea. It is estimated that as many as 15,000 camps for children have been established in recent years. Most of these, of course, have been sponsored by agencies and organizations outside the school. Nevertheless, schools have increasingly incorporated the camping experience into the range of educational experiences offered children. While many early camps were justified on the basis of factors of health and recreation, there has been an increasing emphasis on the educational possibilities of outdoor opportunities for children to live, play, and work together. Many are concluding that this development offers one of the most promising means whereby most of the major educational aims and activities can be integrated into a genuinely realistic manner. The development of outdoor education is only one indication of the possibilities inherent in the extension of learning activities into the laboratory of the community and world which surrounds the school.

The purposes and philosophy of the school camp are noted in a statement in the 1944 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.¹ According to this statement, "The school camp should have as its central objective helping young people understand the democratic way of life and practice it in their relationship with others." It should:

1. Treat each youngster as an individual. It should guide him, help him to face his problems, help him develop his potentialities, open up new interests to him.
2. Help youngsters to live with others, giving and taking, sharing and accepting responsibilities, constantly learning to widen the area of shared interests through partaking in enterprises with others for objectives commonly agreed upon by the participants.
3. Stress problem solving, using the method of intelligence.
4. Help youngsters to be concerned for human welfare, in and outside the camp.

PROBLEMS OF ARTICULATION

A persistent problem which has been given relatively little active attention is that of articulation in the educational process. Broadly speaking, the problem embraces two major concerns: (1) the smooth transition of children from one administrative unit of the educational ladder to the next, and (2) provisions for continuity in learning in relation to the manner in which children develop.

The problem of articulation among educational units is first met when the child enters the elementary school. The transition from home to school demands many adjustments in the lives of children. Helping the child to detach himself from the almost complete dependence on his parents and giving him a sense of security in his new situation are tasks which require considerable professional insight and skill.

The jolt of readjustment is felt again as children move

¹ "Schools and Camping," *Toward a New Curriculum* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association of the United States, 1944), pp. 102-103.

from the elementary school to the junior or senior high school, depending on the type of school organization. In this case, the transition involves both social factors and curriculum adjustments. In many school systems, the child has been accustomed to the self-contained, family-like organization in the elementary school. As he moves into junior high school, he often is confronted with the necessity to adjust to a departmentalized organization of classes. In addition, the necessity for making new friends in a new, bigger and less intimate situation may create problems for the typical adolescent.

There are many possible approaches to the problem of articulation as it relates to the elementary school. Some practices which appear to have promise are:

1. Provision for comprehensive records which accompany the child into his new situation
2. Open house for new pupils and parents
3. Pupil-parent-teacher conferences
4. Opportunities for visitation in the school in advance of enrollment
5. Informal sessions with "alumni" from the elementary school
6. Preschool orientation and planning conferences and meetings
7. Articulation committees composed of teachers, administrators, and supervisory or guidance personnel from both units
8. In-service meetings of teachers to discuss problems of continuity and articulation.

Aside from the problem of transition from one school unit to another, continuous attention needs to be given to the study of means whereby the day-by-day and year-by-year continuity of learning experiences may be assured to a maximum degree for each child. The importance of such continuity has been emphasized in connection with discussions of learning and the curriculum in other parts of this volume. The only purpose here is to emphasize the need for further study and action toward the fuller accomplishment of conditions which promote such continuity. This is not to imply that productive steps have not already been taken

to alleviate this problem in many modern schools. The problem, in such situations, usually has been approached through:

1. Revision of promotional policies toward the establishment of some plan for continuous progress
2. Adoption of the ungraded primary unit as a plan of organization in the elementary school
3. Assignment of teachers on a two-year or three-year rotation basis with each teacher remaining with a particular group through a two- or three-year period.
4. *Broader and more flexible curriculum adaptations.*

PROBLEMS OF CO-ORDINATION

It is generally conceded that the child continues to learn whether he is in or outside the school. In fact, some educators define the child's curriculum as the sum of all the experiences which affect him. Although this is a broad concept of curriculum, it does serve to dramatize the fact that not all learning by children occurs within the boundaries of the school, nor as a direct result of its program. It seems to be a matter of common sense, then, for educators to search for the best possible means of co-ordinating all constructive contributions to the child's total learning experiences.

There are several ways in which the effective co-ordination of learning experiences may be promoted. It is necessary to take steps to insure a co-operative effort by all teaching personnel who plan and guide the learning experiences of children. Regular classroom teachers should work co-operatively with special teachers, supervisors, and members of the service staff to insure an integrated approach to learning and teaching. This can be encouraged by providing opportunities for such personnel to plan and work together. This can be achieved best, of course, in an atmosphere of confidence and high morale.

The establishment and maintenance of pleasant, effective working relations between the school and the home are quite essential to the efficient co-ordination of learning experiences for children. Along with the development of day-to-day

working relationships between parents and teachers, organizations such as the Parent-Teachers Association can render invaluable service as a liaison agency for bringing together the contributions of school, home, and community. Community councils also can be helpful in co-ordinating the interests and services of various community agencies which affect the education of the child.

School-community relations have passed through several stages of development. No longer is it considered sufficient for effective lines of communication to be set up between school and community, however essential this is to a good school. Educators and citizens must go even further in their attempts to find ways of constructively integrating contributions from all sources into a well-rounded pattern of learning experiences for the children of the community.

PROBLEMS OF DIFFERENTIATION

Education would be a much simpler process for all concerned if the assembly-line procedures of the business world could be employed to accomplish its ends. This is not possible, however, in view of the fact that teachers are dealing with raw materials that are characterized by all the variabilities and complexities of human nature. Each individual learner possesses his own set of purposes, interests, experiences, and capabilities. To adjust the program of the school to these attributes without neglecting the common needs of all learners is a professional feat that requires insight and ingenuity.

Effective differentiation of instruction in terms of the individual differences found in children is based on several considerations.

1. Teachers must be interested in children as individuals and possess the insight necessary for identifying particular needs and abilities.
2. Organization of the school must be such that the child does not lose his individuality for the sake of administrative grouping.

Policies governing pupil classification and progress must be such that the child is always able to work at his level of achievement.

Materials of instruction must be supplied in terms of the range of interests and difficulty found among children in each classroom.

Ways must be found, through sound educational guidance, to remove obstacles to learning possessed by particular individuals.

School personnel must be willing to adjust their standards of success to conform with the specific capabilities of each individual child.

Teachers and parents must work together on the basis of mutual understanding of the individual child and his needs.

Evaluation procedures should be geared to individual growth patterns as well as to group norms.

The developments of this particular era have produced a renewed emphasis on the education of the gifted child. Much more research and thought is needed in determining the best possible ways of providing educational opportunity for all types of children who deviate notably from normal ranges of ability. The task of discovering new or better approaches to the problem of dealing with serious social maladjustment and juvenile delinquency presents another fertile area for serious and creative professional inquiry.

PROBLEMS OF EVALUATION

The process of evaluation in the elementary school was discussed in considerable detail in Chapter 6. It seems superfluous, therefore, to discuss further the important function of evaluation in the educational process. A consideration of the challenging problems in education today, however, would be incomplete without some reference to the need for refining our evaluative processes in the elementary school.

In the main, the processes of instruction and evaluation have not kept pace with changes in educational purpose which have marked the development of the elementary-

school program. Furthermore, it has seemed not quite so difficult to effect changes in methodology as to depart from traditional techniques of evaluation. The most serious problem in evaluation, however, is related to the broadening of the scope of educational goals to which the elementary school is committed. It has been relatively easy to develop means for measuring and evaluating achievement in the skills areas such as reading and arithmetic. It has been considerably more difficult, however, to find and practice suitable means for evaluating growth in such areas as citizenship and social development.

PROBLEMS IN GUIDANCE

Although increasing emphasis has been placed on guidance and pupil personnel services at the more advanced levels of learning in recent years, there is still considerable discussion, and some controversy, regarding the role of guidance in the elementary school. The lack of development of organized guidance activities at the elementary-school levels bears some relationship to the concept of the role of the elementary-school teacher in the self-contained classroom. In the minds of many, the best guidance in the elementary school is just good teaching. Granted that there is a great deal of justification for this interrelated concept of guidance and teaching, still there appears to be some virtue in the arguments of educators who deplore the lack of provision for specialized help with guidance problems in many elementary schools.

Many schools are supplementing the work of the regular classroom teacher with several types of pupil personnel services. Some of the more common types of services are: (1) specialized health services, (2) psychological services, and (3) visiting teacher services. Although the organization of pupil personnel services tends to vary from school to school, there is some general agreement concerning the principles which should guide the establishment and opera-

tion of these services. A rather comprehensive list of such principles appeared in a circular issued by the United States Office of Education.²

1. Pupil personnel services are most effectively administered when their organization is structured to meet the individual needs of pupils.
2. The success of a pupil personnel program in a school system is directly correlated with the vision and perseverance of the administrative officers.
3. In the process of focusing attention upon the development of the pupil, emphasis should be given to the preparation of teachers and administrators to use pupil personnel services appropriately.
4. Pupil personnel services will operate best when the specialist in one area has enough understanding and appreciation of the work of specialists in other areas to be able to recognize the appropriateness of referrals and relationships.
5. All individuals who operate in school guidance should have familiarity with classroom procedures and appreciation of classroom problems. In turn, the classroom teacher should have an understanding of pupil personnel services.
6. Effective coordination of pupil personnel services may be secured either by placing such services within a single administrative unit and/or by establishing adequate coordination among various individuals responsible for segments of the program, as long as policies and relationships are clearly defined.
7. Coordination of pupil personnel services is materially improved when each of the departments within pupil personnel service contributes pertinent materials to a single running record for each child. Confidential information should be protected and made available only through the person recording the information.
8. To minimize undesirable duplication of effort among the various personnel services, it is essential that the scope and

² *Pupil Personnel Services in Elementary and Secondary Schools*, Office of Education Circular No. 325 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1951), pp. 12-13.

nature of each service be clearly outlined and the jurisdiction of each clearly established.

9. The setting of the school and the educational levels of its pupils condition the administration and organization of the program of pupil personnel services that will be most effective in that school.
10. Responsibility, democratically assigned, works best when a specialist operates as a consultant—a staff relationship in pupil personnel services.
11. A counselor and other specialists such as nurses should have a staff relationship in a school system, regardless of size of school.
12. It is basic that responsibility for various aspects of pupil personnel services should be assigned to the best qualified member or members of the school staff.
13. The role of the teacher as a key person in the utilization of pupil personnel services for assisting pupils should be clearly defined.
14. When any specialist works with members of the staff in helping pupils, the specialist has a responsibility for broadening their understanding.
15. It is a policy of the counseling service to give appropriate help in time to prevent difficulty rather than to wait until real scholastic or personal trouble has forced the student to the attention of the counselor.
16. Where community agencies serving families and children exist, the school staff concerned with pupil personnel services should establish clear lines of relationships with these agencies.
17. Policies supporting the activities of a school guidance program should emanate from the constituents of the school—teachers, administrators, laymen, youth—especially from those most affected by the program.
18. All specialists in pupil personnel services should have an opportunity to participate in total staff planning and assist in curriculum development designed to meet the needs of the pupils.
19. There should be continuous study and evaluation of the guidance organization, including personnel used, in terms of how well the needs of pupils are being met in the local situation.

CHALLENGES RELATED TO TEACHING

The history of education has demonstrated that the quickest way to provide better education has been to provide better teachers. The quality of learning experiences provided by a school seldom ever rises above the level of professional competence of the teachers who staff the school. In fact, the teacher is the key to the whole educational process. If he is a living example of sound education, if he is socially concerned and intellectually alert, he will likely be a positive influence in the lives of his pupils. However, the task of education is so complex and demanding that many personal and professional qualities are essential to the teacher's success. Chapter 10 contained a discussion of some of the factors related to competence in teaching. As a background for the discussion of some of the problems of teaching today, the list² of general attributes of the professionally educated teacher which follows indicates that this teacher:

1. Expresses carefully considered rather than impetuous judgments of public events. Views his own affairs and those of his profession in the light of a real understanding of the social, economic, and political factors operating in his community, nation, and world.
2. Shows in his relations with other people, as individuals and as groups, that he reflects upon and practices the values of democracy, accepting both the freedoms and the responsibilities involved.
3. Has developed an appreciation of people who are different from himself in cultural, racial, religious, economic, and national background, and is willing to accord them full equality of opportunity.
4. Has gained a useful understanding of the learning process as it operates in human development and of effective methods of guiding it in children, youth, and adults.
5. Has developed the ability and initiative to take responsibility.

² *Revised Standards and Policies for Accrediting Colleges for Teacher Education* (Oneonta, N. Y.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1951), pp. 8-9.

- ity for planning, guiding, and evaluating his own education and for helping others to learn.
6. Has learned to identify issues of moral choice involved in his personal and professional life and has developed ethical principles and spiritual resources to guide his actions.
 7. Has developed sufficient understanding of the activities and agencies of local communities to enable him to relate the educational activities of the school to the ongoing processes of community improvements.
 8. Has gained a working knowledge of the principles governing the formation and functioning of social groups and is able to use group processes in the improvement of individual and community life.
 9. Understands the purposes, development, programs, financial support, and administrative organization of the American system of public education, and participates professionally in group planning of improved educational programs and in performing the special duties he assumes.
 10. Understands the physical and biological environment sufficiently well to guide children and youth in trying to use and control the environment for the welfare of all mankind.
 11. Is able to communicate his thoughts orally and in writing with enough clarity and logic to be effective as a teacher.
 12. Has a real appreciation of esthetic values as these are represented in painting, sculpture, architecture, music, literature, and other media of creative expression.
 13. Is able to demonstrate his ability to apply his intellectual, moral, esthetic, and professional learnings as an effective teacher in a typical school situation.
 14. Has acquired a teaching competence, in both knowledge and skills, in the subject-matter areas in which he expects to teach.

Basically, there are two serious problems in relation to developing a profession of qualified teachers for the schools of this era. One is the sheer shortage in the number of teachers necessary to staff our schools properly. The other is the challenge of discovering increasingly better ways of preparing masterful teachers. Although these may seem at first glance to be primarily the concerns of teacher-educating institutions and state certification agencies, they have very

direct implications for leadership personnel in the public schools.

PROBLEMS OF TEACHER SUPPLY

It is difficult to determine the exact number of teachers that will be needed in the ensuing years to staff the elementary schools of this country. This is largely due to the fact that demand cannot be calculated without corresponding assumptions and predictions regarding population trends, teacher turnover, and administrative standards and practices. The demand is also affected by such matters as the number of emergency teachers and the trends in class size. At any rate, conservative estimates indicate a deficit of at least 100,000 teachers for the year 1960.

Many factors contribute to this shortage of qualified teachers and to the apparent lack of success in recruiting enough prospective teachers to alleviate the problem. Briefly stated, some of the major contributing factors are:

1. The apathy and negative attitudes of teachers already in the profession. Although such teachers are in the minority, they affect adversely the process of attracting capable young teachers into the profession.
2. Unfavorable conditions of employment including inadequate salaries. Some major strides have been taken to improve salaries and other working conditions in recent years, but schools are still finding it difficult to compete with other professions and business for the services of capable persons.
3. Unfavorable public opinion regarding teaching as a profession. Lack of prestige in the local community as well as the effects of caricatures of teachers in movies and publications contribute to the difficulty of getting a greater number of capable persons attracted to the teaching profession.
4. Lack of vocational guidance in the local schools.
5. Lack of more intensive efforts on the part of professional groups and organizations in many communities.

Supervisors are in a strategic position as educational leaders in their communities to spearhead systematic, intelligent efforts to help alleviate the shortage of qualified teachers.

In addition to the development of direct approaches to the solution of the problem, much can be done simply by helping teachers in the school succeed in maintaining a high level of professional morale which will in turn, have a contagious effect on young persons considering the possibility of teaching as a career.

PROBLEMS OF TEACHER PREPARATION

From the time the first normal school was established in 1839, great progress has been made in the professional preparation of teachers. This has been largely due to the combined effects of teacher certification patterns and improved programs of preparation in the colleges and universities of the country. In the main, teachers in the elementary schools today are professionally competent and dedicated workers. In view of the teacher shortage mentioned above, however, recent years have seen many varying opinions expressed concerning what may constitute the best pattern of preparation for teaching in the elementary school. Out of these discussions and study have emerged a number of issues concerning the education of teachers. These are summarized in a recent publication of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.⁴

The Goals to Be Realized

1. Is the *primary* goal of teacher education intellectual development—the scholarly mastery of fields of knowledge and ability to deal verbally with ideas?
2. Is it necessary that the goals include both intellectual development and the building of social and emotional adjustments basic to using knowledge to interpret and deal with personal, social, and professional situations?

Concept of the College Curriculum

1. Will the desired goals be achieved and teachers adequately prepared when the curriculum is conceived as a program of courses?
2. Should the curriculum for teacher education include courses and

⁴ *Teacher Education for a Free People* (Oneonta, N. Y.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1956), pp. 81-82.

all other experiences of students for which the college bears responsibility?

Nature and Content of Curriculum Experiences

1. Will a curriculum whose content is primarily subject matter selected in terms of logical relationships and sequential development of a field provide meaningful experiences for prospective teachers?
2. For experiences to be meaningful to students should the content of the curriculum deal with the significant personal, social, and professional problems and situations faced by individuals and groups in our society—with subject matter selected from organized bodies of knowledge as needed in the study of these problems?
3. When does the logical organization of a field provide meaningful experience for a student?
4. Can vicarious experience alone give adequate meaning to ideas?
5. Are direct experiences equally needed in general and professional education?
6. Should general education be the same for all teachers? Should it be the same for teachers and for those having other educational goals?
7. To what extent do the professional responsibilities of teachers working in elementary and secondary schools indicate similar or differentiated work in professional education? In areas of specialization?
8. Should the content of courses in general education and in fields of specialization include consideration of the professional use of the content? Are separate methods courses needed?

Guidance of Learning Experiences

1. How can student purpose (the drive toward a goal) be related to what is to be learned?
2. How can experiences which center in the immediate concerns and interests (purposes) of college youth be guided so as to provide meaningfully for the depth of study basic to the scholarship required of the citizen-teacher?
3. What must be the nature of the guidance of experiences if work on contemporary problems and immediate situations is to provide adequately for the necessary understanding of trends and historical backgrounds?
4. What does adequate recognition of individual differences mean for differentiation of experiences? For co-operative work on an experience of common concern? For differentiation in the length of the period of student teaching? For variation in the length of the total educational program for different students? For the place and nature of electives?

5. What is the student's role in selecting, planning, carrying out, and evaluating his college experiences?
6. How can students be helped to grow in appraising their success in the achievements of goals? What must be the nature of evaluation which adequately judges the competencies required of today's citizen-teacher?

Organization of Curriculum Experiences

1. Will an organization by subjects, broad fields, natural groupings of closely related life problems and situations, or some other plan of organization best facilitate the desired learnings?
2. What proportion of the total curriculum should be allocated to each of the three major areas—general education, specialization, professional education? To achieve the desired learning should such divisions be maintained?
3. Can the citizen-teacher best be prepared when work in general education precedes professional study or when both academic and professional areas are a part of each college year? At what points in the curriculum will work in fields of specialization be most productive?
4. What place do elective courses have in the teacher-education curriculum? Should the curriculum be essentially prescribed, with courses and other activities selected in terms of the needs of the individual student?
5. Can the needed initial competence and controls for continuing self-education be developed in a four-year program?
6. Should a fifth-year internship be provided as a meaningful way to relate preservice study to continuing in-service education?

Bringing About Curriculum Change

1. What part should students have in bringing about curriculum change? What special educational values can this experience have for the prospective teacher?
2. What does improvement of the college curriculum mean for in-service teacher education at the college level—providing for and fostering experimentation by individuals and groups?
3. What is the role of administration in encouraging and facilitating change—selection of new staff members, staff participation in policy making, staff load, recognition of contributions made through productive teaching as well as through research and writing?
4. How can the difficulties created by regulations, conventional time allotments, certification requirements, and vested interests be met?

Teacher preparation has developed to the point where certain definite trends may be noted. They are: (1) a steady

increase in the amount of preparation required of teachers, (2) a greater liberalization of the program of preparation, (3) a greater specialization in terms of the particular aspects of education engaged in by teachers, and (4) an increasing emphasis on the applied phases of teacher education.

PROBLEMS IN PROFESSIONALIZATION

Several factors have contributed to the gradual professionalization of teaching. Among them are higher standards of preparation and certification and the formation of professional associations and societies. Although teachers have not yet organized themselves to the extent represented by the American Medical Association in medicine and the American Bar Association in law, the increasing role of associations has been noted since the organization of the National Education Association in 1857. Not only has this national organization grown steadily but also affiliated state and local groups have been formed and have grown rapidly in number and size.

Obviously, teachers to date have fallen quite short of the goal of becoming a truly professional group. In spite of the marked progress in this respect, the profession still does not boast of either the uniformly high-level standards of preparation or the collective prestige and morale characteristic of the older professions. Efforts to bring teaching to a more advanced level of professionalization appear to have been affected somewhat adversely by certain conditions such as the following:

1. The number of possible organizations to which teachers may belong may detract from the spirit of unity necessary in a large profession.
2. The competition between two or more types of organizations in the same community may have tended to create a divisive effect on the profession as a whole.
3. Professional associations have not always effectively combined the interests of various types of educators such as teachers, superintendents, administrators, and college and university personnel.

4. There is not always an effective working relationship between local associations and those on the state or national levels.
5. Many teachers do not possess a truly professional concern and outlook and thus it is difficult to generate an interest in further professionalization.
6. The predominant interest of many professional groups in legislation and teacher-welfare matters appears sometimes to preclude an equally important concern with curriculum and school organization.
7. The profession of teaching suffered from the slowness with which it has been able to develop and gain acceptance for its own standards of professional competence and preparation.

OTHER CHALLENGES OF THE CURRENT ERA

Virtually everything that happens in our society bears some relationship, either directly or indirectly, to the work of the schools. The alert educational leader, then, must be aware of developments and concerns of the present day even though their bearing on the operation of schools may seem a bit remote. It is the purpose of this section to point up a few of the concerns which appear to have implications for education and for the type of administrative and supervisory leadership found in schools today.

RECONCILIATION OF LAY AND PROFESSIONAL INTERESTS

One of the big challenges facing education today is that of discovering the best ways of capitalizing fully on the technical knowledge and leadership of the professional specialist without doing violence to our conviction that the schools belong to the people who support them. As was indicated in Chapter 8 in a discussion of educational goals, it is necessary for laymen to help determine what our schools should accomplish within the framework of our society and in terms of the needs and resources of the community, but it is damaging to the whole process of education to create situations in which uninformed laymen assume, or interfere with, the professional and technical processes through which the school program produces the outcomes desired.

THE IMPACT OF MASS MEDIA ON EDUCATION

Another challenge of this era of American history is that of determining the relationship of newer forms of mass media to the process of organized education and discovering how their effects can be channeled into constructive resources for children who attend our schools. There appears to be a need for extensive research into the various phases of this problem. There is a particular need at this time for educators to determine just what should be the proper role of television in the educational process. These are some of the questions which the rapid expansion of mass media raises for education:

1. What is the composite impact of mass media on the concepts the public holds of education and schools today?
2. How can the processes of mass communication be best utilized in the curriculum of the school today?
3. What are the negative effects, if any, of such activities as television viewing on the general education of the child?
4. What are the possibilities for these media as aids in preservice and in-service education of teachers?

The supervisor, as an educational leader, must keep informed about developments in the areas of mass communication through observation and analysis of research so that he, in turn, can assist teachers in keeping abreast of problems and possibilities which these developments present.

PUBLIC CRITICISM OF SCHOOLS

It is important in this era to distinguish between *legitimate criticisms* of schools and *unjustified attacks* on them. The recent wave of public interest in schools has brought both positive and negative developments. On the one hand, it has increased and cemented the wholesome relationships between educators and the public which are so valuable to the operation of an effective school program. On the other hand, however, recent world events appear to have been the signal for unleashing a barrage of irresponsible attacks on

education. While the more dramatic attacks on schools usually do not have any very devastating long-range effects on education, they do create temporary disturbances which tend to arouse the suspicion of the public with respect to both the quality of the educational programs provided for their children and the motives and competence of the educators who guide these programs.

Responsible educators have always welcomed legitimate and constructive criticisms regarding the effectiveness of the school program. Educational leaders must remain sensitive to the voice and will of the citizenry they serve. They should not, however, be unduly panicked by the condemning voice of a highly vocal minority.

As contrasted with rabble-rousing techniques of less scrupulous critics, the attitudes and activities of the honest critic of education can usually be characterized as follows:

1. They usually channel their questions and criticisms through legitimate and established organizations or agencies or submit them directly to those with duly constituted authority.
2. They show a willingness to meet and co-operate with administrators, supervisors, and teachers concerning problems or questions.
3. They keep their discussions on the issues rather than on personalities.
4. They evidence a willingness to seek and accept facts.
5. They make criticisms that are specific and constructive.
6. They avoid the sensational types of publicity and propaganda.

MORAL AND SPIRITUAL VALUES IN EDUCATION

For many years, if not throughout the entire history of the United States, there has been considerable difficulty in defining the role of the public school in relation to the inculcation of moral and spiritual values in children. Though the home and church are the primary agencies from which children get most of their direct moral and religious teaching, there are many who feel that education is incomplete if it does not consciously devise some means for promoting moral character in children and for helping them build the neces-

sary spiritual resources for purposeful and happy living. This is not a suggestion that religion should be taught in the public schools. Such an approach is illegal and probably undesirable. It is the intention to suggest that educators should explore possibilities for new and functional approaches to the matter of giving proper emphasis to the moral and ethical side of the child's development. In the meantime, the school can assist in the development of moral and spiritual values by: (1) the example of members of the school staff, (2) demonstrating and teaching tolerance of and respect for religious differences, and (3) by incorporating into regular learning experiences the values of honesty, helpfulness, and integrity.

SUPERVISORY APPROACHES TO CURRENT PROBLEMS

Supervision is both philosophic and scientific in nature. It is philosophic in that it is concerned with values as a basis for the development of educational purposes and processes; it is scientific insofar as it utilizes sound methods of analysis and objectivity in its techniques. In dealing with problems in education, then, supervisory leaders should attempt to create optimum conditions for both subjective deliberation and scientific study and research. Some of his specific approaches might be:

1. Including in the professional library pertinent professional materials related to the professionalization of teaching
2. Working with professional groups on matters related to certification and preparation of teachers
3. Arranging some staff meetings or study groups to consider the current issues in education today
4. Arranging an intervisitation program for teachers so that they might observe such things as an ungraded primary group in action
5. Asking a committee of teachers and parents to prepare a bulletin on how the independent reading activities or the television viewing of children at home can be incorporated into their over-all learning experiences in a constructive manner.

SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVING UNDERSTANDING OF CURRENT PROBLEMS IN EDUCATION

1. Obtain and read one or more articles on teacher supply and demand.
2. Interview two or three laymen concerning their views about teaching as a profession. Try to determine how accurate their impressions are.
3. Examine the bulletin of a neighboring institution which prepares teachers in order to determine the proportion of general and professional education required for a teacher's preparation.
4. Confer with the principal of a junior high school to find out what is done to assist pupils in their transition from elementary school to the junior high school.
5. Visit a school camp, or confer with a camp director, to find out the nature of its purposes and program.

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Chapter 15

Evaluating the Supervisory Program

True democracy is one of the highest forms of human relations. Over the years its ideals have evoked the highest loyalties of peoples who value freedom and the right to govern themselves. Intelligent thought and action have always been a vital ingredient in the development and defense of American democracy. The willingness to muster the necessary industrial and military power to defend our way of life against the forces of tyranny has also contributed to the successful sustenance of our democratic way of life. It must be concluded, however, that the truest base for our democratic faith springs from moral and spiritual values as reflected in the worth of the individual and in the way human beings behave toward each other.

An active democratic faith cannot be inherited in the sense that concrete possessions can be passed tangibly from one generation to another. Neither can it be imposed upon one group of people by another. Its very nature is such that its future is determined by its own processes and the principles upon which these processes are based. Such a way of life involves more than verbal allegiance. It requires an intellectual and spiritual dedication to basic tenets. Among the many factors essential to the effective perpetuation and refinement of the democratic way of life are: (1) an abiding faith in the human mind and spirit when they are free to operate, (2) a recognition that the truest test of group prog-

ress is what happens to individuals, and (3) the necessity for some means of expressing the corporate will and providing for the collective security of a people without destroying individual freedoms.

In a world torn between conflicting ideologies, the major task of the American public school seems to be clear. Certainly, one of its main objectives must be that of educating children with respect to the rights and responsibilities of democratic citizenship. The life and program of the school must contribute directly to the development of the abilities, attitudes, and traits which constitute the substance of democratic living and faith.

If the elementary school is to assume its proper role in meeting this obligation, its program must be subjected to continuous processes of study, evaluation, and improvement. Professional educators, particularly, have an obligation to scrutinize continuously the processes and products of the schools to see if they are consistent with the goals of our society for our children. They need to develop and maintain programs of learning experiences which recognize the worth and integrity of each child and which provide the types of activities which promote democratic living.

Earlier portions of this volume have been devoted to the discussion of some of the theory and practices related to effective learning, teaching, and supervision. From time to time, principles have been stated concerning human relations, evaluation processes, curriculum study and improvement, the learning process, teaching methodology, instructional materials, and other components of the educational process. The effectiveness of each part of the educational process, however, is influenced by the degree to which the various elements are co-ordinated in the movement toward the achievement of the school's goals.

The supervisory program is the chief means through which the instructional activities of the school are stimulated and integrated around meaningful goals. The extent to which such a program fulfills its purposes depends very largely on the concept and quality of leadership brought to the task by

the administrator or supervisor charged with the official responsibility for the operation of the school. In considering the role of supervision in education, therefore, one must take an evaluative look at the supervisory program of the school and the supervisory leader.

In view of the importance of including an evaluation of the supervisory program in an over-all discussion of the educational program, the subsequent portions of this chapter are devoted to: (1) some basic principles regarding the effectiveness of the supervisory program, (2) some criteria for appraising the supervisory program, and (3) some means for the professional growth of the supervisor.

BASIC PRINCIPLES RELATED TO THE SUPERVISORY PROGRAM

There is virtually no limit to the number of ways in which the influence of the supervisor is felt in the modern elementary school. Almost every phase of the instructional program may be affected directly or indirectly by the vision, attitudes, and professional activity of the educational leader. It is impossible, therefore, to indicate all the ways in which the effectiveness of the supervisory program is related to the various elements of the school program. It may be helpful, though, to suggest a few principles which suggest the general type and structure of relationships affecting the supervisory process.

An effective supervisory program is related to consensus of purpose. The purpose of the elementary schools must grow out of democratic ideals and values and must guide a program of activities designed to furnish children with the attitudes and skills necessary for living in accordance with these ideals. This suggestion of the importance of a consensus of purpose should not be misconstrued as a plea for blind conformity. It must be recognized, though, that an efficient program for the effectual achievement of educational goals hardly can be designed and implemented unless there is first some agreement as to the goals to be realized.

The effective supervisory program will include provisions for all persons interested in the educational program—children, parents, teachers, administrators, and supervisors—to work together in such ways that they may develop a mutual understanding of educational aims that will promote and effectively integrate the activities which are planned to achieve these goals.

An effective supervisory program is related to human relations. The quality of the human relationships operating in a school is often a key to the over-all effectiveness of the supervisory program. Furthermore, since education depends so largely on the interaction of individuals with each other, the qualitative level of the teaching-learning situation is affected by the attitudes of learners toward teachers and teachers toward learners. The nature of teacher-pupil relationships, in turn, is affected by the supervisor.

The supervisor contributes the wholesome relationships in the classroom in at least two ways: (1) by his attitudes toward children, teachers, and parents, and his example of considerateness, and (2) by working to create an all-school climate of friendliness and mutual concern. His effectiveness in many other channels of activity is basically affected by his ability to create and maintain a situation in which people like and respect each other.

An effective supervisory program is related to group process. In supervision, as in teaching, respect for the individual is of paramount importance. Similarly, supervisory processes, like those of teaching, must be sufficiently individualized to guarantee that personal and unique problems of teachers receive proper attention. Even if it were professionally desirable to reduce most supervisory activity to an individualized basis, it would not be feasible to do so in terms of the increasing size of school units and the accompanying dispersion of the responsibilities of supervisory personnel. Therefore, recent years have seen an increasing emphasis on group approaches to program improvement. As a result, the likelihood of substantial improvements in the program of the modern school correspond rather closely to

the degree to which members of a school staff have learned how to use group process effectively.

An effective supervisory program is related to curriculum improvement. All aspects of the program of the school are interrelated in their contributions to the achievement of the broader goals of education in American democracy. Various elements and activities of the school program, however, are focalized in the curriculum of the school. Learning experiences, in school and out, find a common meeting ground in the curriculum as it is organized within the structure of each school and classroom. The curriculum, then, is the heart of the program of the modern elementary school.

The supervisory program touches the curriculum in two important ways: (1) it seeks to provide the conditions under which teachers may teach more efficiently in order that children may learn more effectively, and (2) it seeks to provide impetus and co-ordination for activities designed to bring about continuous improvement in the curriculum. Both of these considerations underlie most of the various supervisory techniques employed by modern supervisors.

An effective supervisory program is related to evaluation. Evaluation is one of the basic aspects of modern education. As pointed out earlier, analysis and evaluation are the prime prerequisites for improvement in educational programs and processes. Educational goals shape the development of programs and activities designed to produce outcomes in keeping with the goals. Evaluation is the process through which the outcomes are measured and appraised in terms of their contributions to the realization of the established goals. In turn, the only way the effectiveness of the program can be judged is in relation to its effectiveness in producing the outcomes desired. It can be seen readily that the productiveness of efforts to improve learning experiences for the children in the schools rests rather heavily upon proficiency in evaluating the purposes, programs, and outcomes of the schools.

An effective supervisory program is related to community orientation and understanding. The modern elementary

school seeks the co-operation of citizens and parents in planning and operating its program. Wholesome school-community relationships stem largely from the effects of democratic leadership since they are so directly dependent upon co-operative attitudes and procedures. The supervisor is a key person in the establishment of the kind of co-operative climate necessary for community understanding and for the effectual use of community resources in the instructional program. He can encourage the appropriate contributions of community leaders to school planning and can do much to relate the school's activities to worthy community concerns. In many communities, there is increasing opportunity for key administrative and supervisory personnel to work closely with community and social agencies that are directly interested in the welfare of children and youth. To summarize, the roots of effective supervision spread far beyond the boundaries of the school, and many opportunities for improvements of the program exist for the supervisor who is sufficiently alert to sense them.

An effective supervisory program is basically concerned with pupil growth. All activities in the modern elementary school presumably are directed toward one ultimate end: the development of the child in terms of his own individual needs and potential and in his growth toward becoming a responsible member of his society. This means that many of the activities and techniques employed in the school get their meaning and value from the extent to which they affect children. In the melee of responsibilities which sometimes confronts the supervisor, it is not surprising that other secondary considerations seem to take on a disproportionate degree of importance. One of the primary contributions of the supervisor, therefore, is that of keeping the focus of significance on the children. This he can do by keeping his own purposes clearly defined and by guiding others, in their discussions and actions, to sense the importance of keeping the school child-centered.

An effective supervisory program is concerned with teacher growth. Something is lacking in an educational program if

all persons engaged in it do not experience growth as a result of participating in its processes. Quite justifiably, of course, the focus of attention in the school should be on the amount and quality of growth which takes place in children. To promote this growth is the basic aim of supervision. However, the techniques employed in the supervisory program also must contribute to the personal and professional growth of teachers and other staff members. Serious questions can be raised about supervisory practices which seem to restrict and stifle creative effort and professional enthusiasm in teachers. While such practices may appear to assume temporary qualities of efficiency, their more enduring effects will influence both teaching and learning in a negative manner. Therefore, while the supervisor should never lose sight of his direct and indirect obligations to the growth of children, he should also carefully appraise his own practices in terms of their contributions to teacher growth.

An effective supervisory program contributes to the growth of the supervisor himself. No supervisor comes to his task fully equipped to meet all the challenging situations which will confront him in his work. If he is to become increasingly effective as a key educational leader, he cannot assume a self-satisfied and omnipotent attitude toward his responsibilities or his fellow workers. He must possess the necessary attitudes and capacity for further growth himself, and demonstrate to his associates his willingness to learn with them. As the modern supervisor works with the educational situation, he is presented with many opportunities for further growth in his personal and professional resources. If he takes full advantage of his experiences with people, his opportunities for study, and his growing understanding of the community, he can increase his own stature greatly as he attempts to improve the situation for others.

CRITERIA FOR APPRAISING THE PROGRAM

Modern supervision seeks to bring about constructive change in the educational program through the improvement

of various aspects of instruction such as learning, teaching, curriculum development, and human relations. In order that plans for improvement may be intelligently formulated, each of these aspects of the school program must be studied and evaluated. As may be noted in Chapter 6 of this volume and from other literature in the field of supervision, considerable progress has been made in the development of techniques for evaluating specific elements of the school program. Unfortunately, however, evaluative procedures for the scientific appraisal of the total program of supervision have not been developed to a comparable level of efficiency.

The lack of clear-cut, scientific means for evaluating the supervisory program has not deterred the attempts of supervisors and others to appraise the effectiveness of their programs. This, of course, is desirable. These attempts to determine the merits of the supervisory program, and to identify points at which it might be improved, have been expressed in several different forms. Some of the means whereby educators have collected data on the effectiveness of supervision have been: (1) measures of growth in children, (2) administrative judgments, (3) analysis of teachers' opinions, (4) data yielded by case studies of teachers, (5) survey and analysis of community opinion, (6) appraisal by some outside agency, and (7) self-evaluation by supervisory personnel.

In implementing some of the approaches, various devices and techniques have been brought into use. Achievement tests, logs and diaries, films and recordings, rating scales, checklists, interviews, and follow-up studies have been used from time to time in this connection. While none of these approaches offers a clear-cut solution to the problem of evaluating the supervisory program, if used intelligently and judiciously, they may have considerable value for this purpose.

It is not the purpose here to present any detailed scheme for measuring and evaluating the outcomes of supervision in the modern elementary school. Part of the reluctance to do so stems from the apparent lack of any highly valid means

for appraising the supervisory process. Furthermore, the process of supervision is so qualitative in nature and so inter-related in structure that it is extremely difficult to utilize typical measuring instruments to its appraisal.

In spite of the difficulties encountered in attempts to evaluate programs of supervision, however, supervisors and members of the teaching staff must engage in some continuous effort to arrive at judgments regarding the outcomes of the supervisory program. There appears to be value, therefore, both in the development of criteria concerning some of the major elements of the program and in the use of such criteria in the discussion and appraisal of various phases of supervisory activity. It is hoped that the following criteria may be useful, either as guidelines for appraising existing supervisory programs or in serving as illustrative examples for persons engaged in the development of their own bases for judging supervision.

CRITERIA RELATED TO PHILOSOPHY AND GOALS

Does the supervisory program:

1. Reflect a basic faith in education as a democratic process?
2. Reflect a belief in the worth and dignity of each individual child and teacher?
3. Reveal confidence in the democratic approach to the solution of problems?
4. Demonstrate the relationship between democratic values and educational purposes?
5. Reflect confidence in the abilities of teachers, pupils, and parents to participate in formulating educational aims?
6. Reflect confidence in the abilities of teachers, pupils, and parents to participate in policy-making?
7. Demonstrate a belief in the co-operative approach to curriculum development?
8. Reveal an understanding of the sociological, philosophical, and psychological forces which influence the educational programs?
9. Show an active respect for the scientific method?
10. Demonstrate a concept of leadership consistent with the democratic values and processes?

Is there definite provision for:

1. Teachers to work co-operatively on educational problems?
2. Effective teacher-pupil planning of classroom objectives and experiences?
3. Parents and citizens to participate in the formulation of educational goals?
4. The clear formulation of the purposes which guide the educational program?
5. Co-operative policy-making?
6. Continuous evaluation of the philosophy governing the curriculum of the school?
7. Examining school practices in the light of the expressed philosophy and objectives of the school?

CRITERIA RELATED TO THE TEACHING-LEARNING PROCESS

Does the supervisory program:

1. Demonstrate and encourage co-operative planning of learning experiences?
2. Reflect an active awareness of the principles of learning?
3. Reflect an active awareness of known principles of child development?
4. Demonstrate and encourage practices which conform to consideration of mental health?
5. Encourage the continuous evaluation of the content organization and sequence of learning experiences?
6. Provide for the evaluation of learning outcomes in terms of educational purposes?
7. Assist in creating and maintaining an optimum environment for learning?
8. Assist in providing teachers with adequate instructional resources?
9. Help in the formulation of organizational practices which are consistent with instructional goals?
10. Contribute to the development of effective evaluative practices in relation to the growth of children, the effectiveness of teaching, and the over-all efficiency of the school program?

Is there definite provision for:

1. Needed curriculum study?
2. The use of community resources in teaching?
3. Adequate library and audio-visual materials and equipment?
4. Individualized and remedial instruction?
5. Special services to aid teachers in diagnosing learning difficulties?

6. A sensible testing program?
7. Action research?
8. Study of evaluation and reporting procedures?
9. Suitable participation of parents in the education of their children?

CRITERIA RELATED TO HUMAN GROWTH

Does the supervisory program:

1. Promote the growth of children in:
 - a. Acquiring the basic skills necessary for effective living and learning?
 - b. Acquiring and practicing habits conducive to physical and mental health?
 - c. Understanding the characteristics, relationships and interdependence of the peoples of the world?
 - d. Understanding the physical world around them?
 - e. Developing a taste and appreciation for things of beauty?
 - f. Developing effective work habits?
 - g. Learning to live, work, and play together?
 - h. Assuming the responsibilities of citizenship?
 - i. Faith in the American way of life?
 - j. Developing moral and spiritual ideals and motives?
2. Promote the growth of teachers in:
 - a. The clear formulation of a sound philosophy of education?
 - b. Clarifying their educational purposes?
 - c. Planning learning experiences consistent with established aims of the school?
 - d. Organizing learning experiences in a manner consistent with the functional and integrative nature of learning?
 - e. Providing for continuity of learning for each child in terms of individual differences?
 - f. Making use of a variety of resources in teaching?
 - g. Using sound and appropriate techniques for evaluating the growth of children?
 - h. The effective use of self-evaluation as a basis for improving teaching efficiency?
 - i. Utilizing supervisory assistance in a positive and constructive manner?
 - j. Utilizing available opportunities for personal and professional growth?
3. Promote the growth of supervisory personnel in:
 - a. Establishing and maintaining a physical, social, and emotional climate favorable to pleasant living and effective learning?
 - b. The skills of democratic leadership?
 - c. The skills of group process?

- d. Promoting school and community cooperation?
- e. Locating and providing valuable learning and teaching resources?
- f. Interpreting the program and achievement of the school?
- g. Sound procedures of evaluation as applied to learning, teaching, and supervision?
- h. Utilizing available opportunities for personal and professional development?

Is there definite provision for:

- 1. Allowing children to participate in the routine organization, management, and operation of the school?
- 2. Pupil participation in the planning of classroom activities?
- 3. Evaluating the growth of children in major areas of development?
- 4. Continuous revision of seeking better ways of providing for all aspects of growth?
- 5. Pupils to relate in-school and out-of-school experiences in a meaningful way?
- 6. Applied citizenship in the classroom and throughout the school?
- 7. A professional library for teachers?
- 8. Personnel practices that are conducive to professional morale and growth?
- 9. Rotating opportunities for leadership among teachers?
- 10. Stimulating faculty meetings?
- 11. Co-operative research?
- 12. Advanced study by teachers and supervisory personnel?
- 13. Orientation of teachers new to the school?
- 14. A varied program of in-service activities?
- 15. Professional participation of teachers and supervisors in professional organizations and activities at the local, state, and national levels?

SOME MEANS FOR THE PROFESSIONAL GROWTH OF THE SUPERVISOR

The value of the supervisor in promoting good education lies not so much in what he does as in what he causes others to do. The stimulation and assistance he gives to teachers is reflected in better learning experiences for children. His own example of leadership will permeate the teacher-pupil relationships in the classroom and be reflected in the level of co-operation between the school and the community. In fact, none of the ways of working together found in the school will reach a qualitative level beyond that reflected in

the concept of education and leadership held by the administrative and supervisory personnel of the school.

The demands on the professional ingenuity and energies of supervisory personnel are ever-increasing in number and expanding in scope. Whether the person assuming supervisory responsibilities is a principal, general supervisor, special supervisor, or consultant, the modern concept of supervision demands of him an expertness which encompasses many forms of professional activity. Many of these areas of activity are described or implied in appropriate places throughout this volume. Some of his major obligations require proficiency in the areas of curriculum development, human relations and personnel work, group process, measurement and evaluation, and instructional materials and resources.

The supervisor needs a high level of preparation if he is to meet the demands of his job successfully. In addition to the general and professional preparation ordinarily required of teachers, the supervisor should have advanced preparation in the fields of the foundations of education, psychology and child development, curriculum, administration and organization of schools, and supervision of instruction including internship experiences. Special work in such areas as the education of exceptional children, audio-visual education, and measurement and evaluation are also helpful. These recommendations assume, of course, that such professional education will be well supported by a broad program of preparation in the basic academic areas of human experience.

Regardless of the adequacy of his preservice preparation, the supervisor cannot reach his full stature as an educational leader without availing himself of existing opportunities for his own professional growth in service. The seasoning of experience combined with continuous study, can produce both confidence and competence in a supervisor and can enhance substantially the quality of his leadership in the school program and in his profession.

The first step in the supervisor's growth in service is for

him to make a serious study of the demands of his job. When he compares these demands with an objective analysis of his own strengths and weaknesses, he then has a basis for planning the means for his own professional growth. Eichert,¹ gives seven basic qualities needed for elementary principals who engage in group leadership. They seem to apply equally well to all persons in supervisory capacities and illustrate rather clearly what needs may be revealed when the supervisor studies his job. They are:

1. An understanding and respect for the power inherent in many people working cooperatively toward common goals
2. Open-mindedness—in terms of accepting differing points of view as worthy of intelligent consideration
3. The ability to provide and implement opportunities for others to share leadership—in planning, decision-making, and evaluation
4. Executive ability to discharge responsibilities and delegate duties so that he will have time and energy to offer creative leadership
5. A high degree of intelligence, combined with ability to deal competently with language and ideas in educational parlance
6. Personal integrity to set a worthy example and consistently direct his actions toward fostering the growth of group processes
7. Sufficient vitality to withstand the heavy expenditure of energy necessary to bring about effective group thinking and action.

After the supervisor has analyzed his job carefully, his next step toward his own personal and professional growth is to survey the types of professional opportunities and activities available to him. Among these will be:

1. Participating in local seminars in administration and supervision
2. Pursuing advanced study at a college or university
3. Developing a professional library with materials in the fields related to supervision

¹ Magdalen Eichert, "Developing Group Processes," *The National Elementary Principal*, XXXV (April, 1956).

4. Participating in civic organizations and improvement clubs
5. Attending educational meetings and conferences sponsored by professional groups and organizations at the local, state, and national levels
6. Affiliating with appropriate professional associations in the field of supervision, curriculum, and administration
7. Planning and conducting a research project in the field of supervision
8. Making a study of developments in personnel work as developed in business and industry with a view toward adapting valuable techniques to his own educational work
9. Planning to do some writing for professional periodicals
10. Engaging in continuous self-evaluation.

There is no challenge in the world today greater than that which faces the educational leadership of this country. Earth-shaking developments are occurring at an accelerating pace and are exerting a tremendous impact on the lives of people. The level of technological development achieved in the world today seems to have outstripped by far mankind's progress in the moral and social attributes necessary for living and working together peacefully and profitably. Throughout the history of the United States, education has been the primary force for implementing the ideals to which we are dedicated. It will continue to be the means whereby the lives of individuals are enriched and the values of our society perpetuated. Its effectiveness in meeting this social challenge will be in proportion to the quality of our educational programs. Whether schools are characterized by limited resources and smug mediocrity, or, on the other hand, reflect a sense of the vital role of education in the continuing process of seeking and maintaining freedom for all people, depends very largely on the extent and quality of the leadership provided in our schools. Such is the challenge of the educational leader! Such is the challenge of supervision!

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